TODAY'S SPEECH

Table of Contents

Extract from a letter sent by Cornell C. Blanding, of Hinds, Crouse Co., Syracuse, N. Y. to various of his business acquaintances

I am enclosing three copies of TODAY'S SPEECH. . .Judging by the types of articles and the high calibre of the writers, I think this magazine is going to have a tremendous impetus on the general field of communications, where this field relates to advanced thinking in oral communications, group dynamics, group discussion methods, conference techniques, methods of improvement of executive and supervisory personnel's speech techniques — in other words, the oral side of the communications job in industry. . . .

SPONSORS OF TODAY'S SPEECH

[EDITORIAL NOTE: Additional sponsors will be welcomed. If *you* wish to be added to this list, please send $4 (plus the regular subscription cost which you have probably already paid) to Paul D. Holtzman, Executive Secretary, SAES; and send any suggestions for improving "TODAY'S SPEECH" to the Editor.]

LEADERSHIP

Without Imposition

By *IRVING J. LEE*

TODAY'S SPEECH is honored to have for publication one of the last productions of Dr. Lee, sent shortly before his untimely death, on May 23, 1955. A distinguished Professor at Northwestern University and author of several thoughtful books on communication problems, Dr. Lee was both a great teacher and one of the outstanding experts on General Semantics.

MY FIRST SYSTEMATIC ACQUAINTANCE with the use of cases outside the classroom came as a happy by-product of my innocence and ignorance.

I had been cataloguing the kinds of communication situations supervisors face during the day. Because the Baxter Company was undergoing some basic changes, I became aware of the process of assignment-making, and especially of the way some of the men went about it. I remember well that on two occasions a foreman made assignments in what struck me as a perfunctory, unimpressive manner when the work to be performed was of considerable significance. Should not an important task be assigned in a comparably important way?

This seemed worth studying. However, a change in my own activities forced a reduction in the time available for visits. And there was no way to arrange the assignment-situations to fit my schedule. I then did the next best thing. I asked a foreman to tell me about the last assignment he had made, where it happened, what he said, how long it took, what the employee said and did, how he thought the employee felt about doing it, etc.

By the time I had notes on 18 such episodes with 7 foremen I had found a fair range of methods and effectiveness. There were examples of adequate and incomplete understanding, of action sometimes cooperative and sometimes at cross-purposes, of sufficient and insufficient information and motivation, of clearness and vagueness—all in varying degrees. The feelings of the employees toward the assignments went all the way from reluctance and unwillingness through uncertainty to interest and enthusiasm.

Using a few simple criteria relating to the attitude and understanding of the employee and the care taken by the supervisor, and going only on what I was told, I was able to separate the inept from the adept communications in 11 of the episodes. I could point to the difference in what was either omitted or committed. However, 7 of the cases were not so readily classifiable. The assignments seemed effective, the work involved relatively routine, yet the situation was anything but happy from the point of view of the employee. In three of the cases everything went smoothly even though the effect should have been something less than that according to the analysis.

The Plant Manager had been following these explorations with interest. I recall his jesting pleasure at my inability to account for all the cases. Nevertheless, he suggested that he would be willing to call a supervisor's group to a meeting to hear what I had learned about assignment-making. He thought their questions and comments might be helpful.

I had intended to give an example of a poor assignment, an effective one and one I couldn't explain with an analysis of each in turn. I never got to do that. Before I reached the second case the foremen literally took over. They by no means agreed that the assignment was ineptly made. They had much to say about the depth and adequacy of my description of the episode itself. They pointed to elements in the interaction of the men, in the work relationships, in the background circumstances I had not even dimly perceived.

I came from that meeting somewhat chagrined at the revelations of my own lack of perceptiveness but stimulated by the insight and enthusiasm of the foremen. They stayed beyond the scheduled hour and they seemed to be having a good time. The damage to my pride was corrected on my next visit. The Plant Manager wondered whether I cared to bring another case for discussion some time. He was sure the men would appreciate it. At the second session I made one change. I gave each a copy of the case and then simply asked them what and how they thought about it.

THE BAXTER EXPERIENCE

There is now a Baxter supervisory group which meets monthly and is self-directing. They began by considering cases involving communication situations I had observed and written up. Later they prepared their own. They now will discuss any case of interest to anyone who will write up the details of a real though suitably disguised situation. They take turns preparing the cases and moderating the discussions. Copies are distributed at least a week in advance.

They took readily to the view that there is a reservoir of wisdom and experience in their people which should be tapped. *They have developed a fair amount of skill in the style of leadership that does not impose a pattern on the group's thinking.* They try to avoid the asking of "forcing" questions like "Why did he do that?" or "What reason did the man give?" or "What exactly did he say?" on the ground that these might inhibit participation. They will only occasionally set the agenda or the objectives of the discussion. They start the talk by a "non-forcing" question such as, "How do you feel about what happened?" or "Does anyone see anything in the case?"

The Baxter group rarely needs to be prodded to talk. Since most of the restraining formalities have been removed they tend to talk easily and freely. There are noticeably strong centripetal tendencies in their discussions. They rarely wander afield in their comments. The mimeographed pages seem to be a mooring point, a base which keeps the talk swirling around rather than away from it.

Now and then a leader feels an impulse to sum up the points made or to "wrap up" the views. I have seen signs of impatience as if the members felt, "No one had to tell us how to think. No one has to put it in a capsule either."

I have some evidence (mostly anecdotal) that these meetings are not without after-effects. The talk seems to have moved some of the men to take another look at what they do as supervisors. The cases themselves have tended to sensitize the rest of the management hierarchy to matters they should not have thought important. When, for example, a case seemed to be complicated by a particular Baxter policy, it became the subject of top-management action not too long after.

THE CASE METHOD

For the teacher of Public Speaking, Interpretation, Acting, or any discipline in which classroom performance by students is possible, many of the elements and variants of the case method are familiar. In a sense every time a class considers a student's effort, something of the case approach will be found.

It is all too easy to write about "the case-method" as if it were some well-defined unity or agreed upon set of procedures. Indeed, "a case" will be something quite different in form and use in Law, Medicine, and Business—and from teacher to teacher and writer to writer. Nevertheless, I see the use of cases in terms of the following:

1. A group is concerned with some phenomena or a written report of some happenings rather than with generalized rules, findings, principles, advice;

2. A group is given an opportunity to indicate whatever relationships and interactions it sees and whatever feelings it has about what is in the case without immediate concern for the views of others, especially those said to be scholars and experts;

3. An effort is made to throw responsibility for observing, generalizing and learning from the experiences with and in the cases on the students rather than on the teacher;

4. An effort is made to check the students' conclusions and principles (which may have been developed elsewhere) against the concrete details of the case at hand;

5. A group is provided with readings giving theoretical positions and conceptual schemes with a view to a consideration of their relevance to the cases being discussed, rather than in an attempt to develop skill in the handling of theoretical constructions. The opinions of scholars and experts are thus drawn upon but not depended upon or dealt with apart from the assigned cases.

ONE MAN'S OPINION

The experience with cases in the Baxter Company and in a course I teach on problems in communication has led me to ask some questions about my own role in the classroom. To what extent have I undertaken to give students what they should have been encouraged to get for themselves? Of course, they might not get the kind of data or synthesis I might provide. But does it make any fundamental difference in the over-all development of the student's capacity if he does or does not have my specific materials and conclusions? And if he does have mine, have I not impoverished him to the extent that he has come to be dependent on others instead of himself? And does not the

desire to give the student what you have necessarily leave little time for the discovery of what he has to give himself?

It is with this sort of prodding question in the background that I spend much more time than ever before searching for case materials and ways of helping to set the stage in the classroom so that students can freely think about them. I am no longer taken aback when students see elements in the cases which do not fit my own tidy formulations.

I wish to venture one more view in the hope that some reader may be moved to wonder along with me. By beginning with cases, with reports of what happened to specific people in particular situations, I have come to have some reservations about the content of the first course in public speaking. After almost three years of surveying the kinds of speeches, conversations and communication activities a supervisor has to concern himself with in the Baxter Company and elsewhere, I should now find it hard to believe that the range of exercises offered in many of our contemporary texts are directly relevant to the needs of supervisors. I recognize that exercises and assignments are given to prepare students for a wider variety of purposes and for all sorts of occasions. Nevertheless, would it not be fruitful to do a series of extended studies of men and women in a number of vocational, professional and avocational situations to see whether our reliance on our traditional subject matter is justified by the kinds of communications these people have and make? It might well be a source of comfort to the writers and users of the texts if they knew rather than guessed at what might be found. It is the burden of my experience that the collection and use of cases might help get such a determination under way.

TEACHING

Is Not Salesmanship

By EDWARD J. THORNE

Dr. Thorne (Ph.D., Northwestern) writes of teaching as one who started college as a freshman at the age of 26, after a varied background in business and industry, plus three years in the U. S. Air Force during World War II. Out of this background he offers some sharp criticisms.

NOT LONG AGO I SHOWED to one of my classes a motion picture advocating the idea that teaching is primarily salesmanship. This is an idea which, unfortunately, has infiltrated education in America, along with two or three other false notions, such as that "success" is the touchstone of accomplishment, and the smoke screen of the "curve" system of grading which so successfully hides bad teaching.

The idea of salesmanship as commonly understood is to make use of gimmicks, lines, pitches, angles, the stressing of good points and the obscuring of bad ones, and it lays great stress upon "personality," which must be "out-going, magnetic and extroverted," and upon "selling yourself," all with the goal of preventing an objective consideration of the merits of several competitive products (or ideas) and coming to a rational conclusion as to which is the best for a particular purpose.

Rather than being identifiable with teaching, salesmanship would seem to be antithetical to it. "To be a successful teacher, you must *sell yourself* through *personality*" is the thesis of the film mentioned above. The idea, obviously, is that if you gain acceptance for yourself your ideas will be accepted. But this is a denial of the very goal of teaching and learning: the objective presentation and consideration of ideas! To the very degree that students accept the ideas presented by a teacher because of his personality, the purpose of teaching is being subverted.

This false doctrine of teaching as salesmanship —finding, as it has, its ultimate expression in the indiscriminate use of "aids," classroom "activities," and "entertaining learning situations"—has supplanted the teaching-learning objective to the point where expressions suitable to popular entertainers are applied to teachers: "What a joker!"

"I sure *enjoy* that class!" "That class is a three-ring circus!" and their opposites: "How boring can you be!" "Why doesn't he *make it interesting!*" "He's got a personality like a concrete block!"

The ramifications of the matter extend far beyond the classroom. With so much time spent by the teacher on "selling," and "entertaining," and "being an out-going personality," the students are deprived of the opportunity to learn to concentrate on an intellect-oriented development of subject matter, or to discover interest arising out of ideas themselves. The result is a widespread inability to follow and comprehend even a reasonably long discourse, written or spoken, unless it is so over-simplified, so diluted with amusing anecdotes and entertaining materials (usually highly irrelevant to the subject) as to be intellectually meaningless.

Some results: We have "sold" education to America, and we pride ourselves on having a "literate nation," meaning most Americans of ten years and up can (loosely) read; a majority of American adults have had high school, and more than ever before are college trained. But, comic books are sold and read by the millions of copies; the "digest" type publications, with all of their over-simplifications, popularizations and dilutions, command vast followings; radio and television have many "salesmen" of gossip, rumor and un-objective opinion, but few calm and objective analysts of world events; newspaper columns are crammed full of "human interest" and gossip materials, while they carry little genuine news of importance and less intelligent analysis and appraisal of the news.

For example, while Formosa was being threatened by Red China, Russia was making pronouncements of vital importance to world-survival, the German re-armament question was being explored, freedom of speech was on trial in the United States Senate, and other events of national, international and even interplanetary importance were occurring, the popular newspapers of the nation devoted banner headlines, pictures, and large percentages of front-page space to the impending national disaster of a Marilyn Monroe-Joe Dimaggio divorce, and, more recently, to the Shepherd murder trial jury's long deliberation and eventual verdict.

Speech teachers are peculiarly vulnerable on the matter of salesmanship in the classroom, both because of the nature of some of the courses they have, for one reason or another, agreed to offer, and because of the kind of skills they profess to understand and to teach. As to the first of these reasons, it will not be unknown to the readers that many schools offer—even require—Speech courses which are "practical" courses. It seems that in some curricula the only possible justification for including a course in public speaking is that it is practical. This means, of course, that the students will be taught and expected to exercise certain ways of doing things which will improve their speaking on the skills level. It need hardly be pointed out that such skills and techniques taught with little or no discussion of their theoretical and philosophical bases can scarcely help being little more than gimmicks. How and why Speech teachers have allowed themselves to be persuaded or coerced into teaching such courses need not be discussed here, other than merely to mention that it often has been a matter of preferring to teach "practical" Speech courses to teaching no Speech courses at all.

The other of the reasons that Speech teachers are vulnerable on the score of salesmanship in place of teaching lies in the very skills which are their stock in trade. Presumably they have some degree of understanding and mastery of the skills of communication, and that understanding is, we trust, based upon a thorough knowledge of the understructure of philosophy, rhetorical literature, and theory which undergirds those skills. Despite that understructure, however, those skills bear, superficially, a suspicious kinship to the gimmicks of salesmanship, and Speech teachers with their skills-mastery and skills-awareness must be especially alert to the possibility that they consciously or unconsciously engage in salesmanship in their classroom work.

Teaching is not salesmanship. So long as we continue to use criteria which are applicable to the entertainment fields as standards of judgment for determining who is a "good" teacher and what is "good" teaching; and so long as we continue the up-ending process which makes centralities of marginal devices, *i.e.*, gimmicks, tricks, personality, persuasive techniques, speaking skills, and the like, displaying disciplined and intelligent consideration of idea-matter in the classroom and in the world, all our widespreading of education is to little purpose, and genuine teaching-learning conditions will continue to be an unattained ideal.

BANQUET SPEAKING

By WILLIAM S. TACEY

President of The Pennsylvania State Speech Association and Director of Radio and Television at the U. of Pittsburgh, Bill Tacey is well known in his area as an after dinner speaker of wit and polish.

As the chairs are pushed back, cigars are lighted, hurrying waitresses rattle dirty dishes, and diners seated in the far reaches of the room hastily gulp the last of their pie a la mode, a man rises at the speaker's table and diffidently says. "It's getting late. I know that you have been enjoying yourselves but I believe that we should start our speaking program."

With that unconscious *faux pas* the after-dinner entertainment is off to a bad start. The hapless speaker of the evening begins to find himself in an irritable mood and regrets that he ever consented to speak to this benighted and unappreciative audience. Common sense warns him to steal silently away while the program chairman's back is turned, but conscience says stay, for running can be more damaging to reputation than even a poor speech.

Success or failure of an after-dinner speech begins when the speaker is first invited to appear on the program. The reason he is chosen is because what he has to say will best suit the purpose of the program and the aims of the organization holding the meeting.

How can a suitable speaker be found? One of the surest ways is to depend on word-of-mouth reports of friends who know both the organization and a lecturer whom they have heard speak once or more times previously. Every program chairman has received one or more brochures from individual lecturers or from speakers bureaus. Some of the statements contained in them may be accurate. The acid test will be statements from other club representatives who have employed their services. Perhaps a local speaker whose reputation is well known may best serve the club's purpose. In any event it's well to have a second, third, or even fourth choice, for the free time of most able speakers is quite limited. The hours spent in investigating the lecturer's ability before inviting him can help assure a more successful after-dinner program.

Probably a personal or telephone invitation to be confirmed by letter is the most satisfactory means of inviting the speaker to speak. It is direct and the response can be immediate, the latter a valuable consideration in event the first man invited turns down the invitation because of a previous engagement or other valid reason.

Here we begin to note the first reason why an early invitation, from two weeks to a year or more in advance, may be necessary in order to get the speaker you really want. The personal contact gives both program chairman and lecturer a chance to size each other up, to ask and answer all necessary questions and to make all arrangements for the speaking assignment. Each will do well to write a memorandum of the results of the call. Later a letter confirming the bargain will be sent to the speaker, a copy to be retained by the program chairman. This gives double assurance that the agreement is understood by both sides.

All financial matters are discussed frankly in the first interview. The lecturer needs to be prepared to suggest the size of the anticipated fee and the program chairman will be authorized to bargain for his group. If no honorarium is to be given the matter should be clearly understood by both. In the preliminary discussion the speaker will expect to be told some of the details of the meeting, besides time and place, in order that he may prepare more adequately. These may well include such information as the expected size of the audience, whether men, women, or children, or all three, what the purpose of the meeting is, and what other items are to compose the program.

One to two weeks before the dinner date another phone call and letter will be useful in completing and reconfirming all arrangements. By now — we hope — the speaker has completed most of his preparation for the event. He will have numerous questions about audience and community which did not occur to him earlier. Some lecturers send a questionnaire to the chairman requesting pertinent information. A day or two before the dinner a phone or post card reminder is good — and cheap — insurance that the speaker won't forget. If he is coming from a distance information

on travel conditions can be most helpful. A snow-storm or inter-city transit tieup can wreak havoc on an otherwise well planned program.

Finally the day of the meeting arrives. What are you doing to guarantee that the speaker does the same? Have you offered to send a car for him? If he is from out of town and too far from home to return tonight did you reserve a hotel room or other acommodations for him? Did you assign someone to serve as his guide to the meeting place All of this may seem silly and unnecessary but it's your meeting and you must take the blame if the program doesn't materialize.

Immediately before the dinner the speaker will be helped to do a better job later if he is cordially welcomed, introduced as a valued friend, and otherwise made to feel comfortable and at ease. Earlier he will appreciate an hour for being alone communing with himself while reviewing his speech but at the meeting place he will enjoy greeting everyone and seeing where he is to speak. Both courtesy and practical realism require that he be shown the place where he is to speak and that he be asked if the arrangements are satisfactory. He may need a lectern which you have forgotten to ask about or an easel to display some visual aids. He may suggest a slight rearrangement of furniture to assure everyone a chance of seeing him while speaking.

For table companions he will enjoy someone entertaining rather than people who expect him to carry the conversational ball. He will be beginning to concentrate on his speech so won't enjoy ponderous or weighty conversation at dinner. Besides, you want the man to be relaxed and at ease when he begins to speak, don't you?

Some speakers eat lightly before the program and won't appreciate being urged to consume extra desserts. Your speaker may look as if he could do with a strong drink or two. If so, a pot of coffee at his elbow will serve nicely, especially when flanked with a pitcher of ice water. During the meal may come a convenient opportunity for a last minute check on lighting, adequacy of the lectern, and other arrangements requested by the speaker. Every bit of help given him can help guarantee a better speech.

Advance preparation for the program's success must include readiness of the audience. Proper billing of the scheduled lecture can whet the appetite of the listeners and increase their receptivity. Giving members of the audience a few minutes to meet the "great man" before the meeting makes him appear human and approachable and can help at least a segment of the audience to be less stand-offish. A warm hand-clasp and a friendly word to a dozen people can do wonders in putting a whole group into a receptive mood. Clear articulation of each guest's name and a sentence or two about him can help the speaker identify him as an individual and remember him longer.

The most difficult task of preparing the audience begins when the chairman who is to introduce the speaker arises to do so. How he handles his job does much to determine the success of the first moments of the visiting speaker's work, and perhaps of the entire speech. If the speech is to be a serious one, a slapstick approach by the chairman can quickly ruin it. One of my colleagues will never forgive a chairman who ruined his speech reputation at a service club by a heavy-handed introduction. By contrast I shall always be grateful to the jovial real estate agent who in a sixty-second speech of introduction put the audience into such a happy mood that no matter what attempt at humor I made it brought belly laughs from everyone. Choosing a chairman for his ability instead of his position in the organization can help improve the evening's festivities. Incidently, it's well to make sure in advance that the chairman will be prepared to do his job effectively.

If those who are planning the program have great responsibilities, that goes double for the speaker. In accepting an invitation he is agreeing to do his best in satisfying the audience needs. An early yes or no answer is but simple courtesy. Delaying a reply unnecessarily is but an aggravation to those who invite you. A day or two of delay in order to learn if schedules can be arranged is excusable. In the negotiations make all arrangements definite and confirm them in writing, keeping a copy for yourself. If you expect an honorarium say so early in the conversation and name the amount. Learn specifically the place, time, and date of meeting. Some groups will suggest that a speaker talk on a specific subject. Others will make it optional. The choice is best made during preliminary negotiations, and both sides need a clear understanding to prevent future mistakes.

As he accepts, the lecturer begins making an analysis of his audience in order to prepare more successfully. In a remarkably few questions he can

find out such pertinent information as size of crowd expected, makeup as to age and sex, general interests—such as bowling or scientific humanism, type of programs preceeding and following yours, and general information about the community. Before the day of the speech more facts may be learned from reference books, magazine articles, road maps or atlases, company advertising and by word-of-mouth inquiry. Someone always has a cousin or girl friend who lives in the community where you are to speak and visits there frequently. Subscribing to a daily newspaper for a week or two can bring much valuable information about recent and current happenings. As the facts accumulate you may begin inserting them in your speech where they can serve effectively in keeping up audience interest and supporting one's general ideas. This presupposes the preparation of at least a skeleton outline listing the main ideas to be developed in your speech. The primary purpose of your attempts at audience analysis is to help suit your speech to the people who are to hear it.

A week or ten days before the happy occasion of your speech is not too soon to start "immediate preparation." At this time the skeleton outline from which you have been working can now be converted into a more complete one. A topical outline or a complete sentence outline may be decided by personal preference. The use of complete sentences can help in clarification of meaning and in testing of logical development. Within the framework of the outline's main points may go the illustrations, the references to authority, the numerous facts and figures, and it's well to find out here if the opening anecdotes you plan to use are really suitable for introducing the subject of your speech.

Shall I write my speech? In some instances where advanced copies are to go to the newspapers or are to be printed in a meeting's "proceedings" a complete written manuscript is a requirement. To insure accuracy of statement, to clarify one's point of view, or to insure care in wording writing out the speech may be good insurance. A word of caution: if the speech is to be read verbatim, prepare carefully for the reading so that your speaking may not sound "ready". A second word— if the speech is to be delivered without notes avoid re-reading your written copy and practice only from the outline. Studying the script can increase lapses of memory while speaking. Rehearsal from the outline can insure the mind's concentration on the thoughts being expressed rather than the words of a manuscript. The period of "immediate preparation" affords a chance to gather together all of the ideas on the subject that have been previously generated, the formulation of clear concise statements, and the organization of all into a format that can help one to accomplish his purpose in speaking.

On arrival at the place of meeting an extra hour in the community can help you get acquainted with the neighborhood. Read the day's local newspaper, observe the most striking sights in the town and store up enough information to use in helping you give your speech a local flavor, so useful in developing audience interest. In the dining-room, a friendly smile and warm hand-clasp to as many of your audience as possible will gain more ready acceptance for you as a person. Polite inquiries about individuals, the community, business, and occupations will increase your fund of information and aid you in making the speech more interesting to the audience.

At last you are seated at a place of honor, pleasant companions are beside you and good food is at hand. Enjoy it all but remember that you are present for more important business than mere pleasure. A few good questions can encourage other people at the table to take the responsibility for conversation. Make mental notes of lighting arrangements, presence or absence of a lectern, and whether provisions have been made for handling visual aids. Last minute suggestions to the chairman are better made before, or during the meal, than after you are introduced to speak. Warning—go easy on the quantity of food and drink if you want to make your best speech.

Suddenly dessert is finished, the tables are cleared, and you realize it's you that the man at the microphone is introducing. A few qualms of fright make you wonder why you ever said yes to this invitation but you are happy, too, for you know that you will soon have the audience before you to do with as you want—or are able. You listen to the chairman's words, ignore the inaccuracies in them, or the mispronounciation of your name. Instead you look for the pleasantries and the bon mots to which you may respond in your opening remarks. Look alert and sit erect. If you are using notes, have them conveniently arranged. As the chairman smiles at you and says, "Mr. Speaker," rise, step briskly to where you are to speak, face the audience, and you are ready.

Your preliminary remarks may be inconsequential in content but they are important in stimu-

lating favorable audience reaction. A gracious response to the chairman, cordial greeting to your fellow speakers and audience can help you adjust yourself to the situation and the audience to you. Your opening sentences may arouse immediate attention and help everyone think, "This is going to be worth listening to."

While speaking, note the audience reaction. Is it enthusiasm or boredom that you see? Your manner can change it. Are you being heard in the back of the hall? If not, why continue to speak? Do you feel jittery and ill at ease? Watch for friendly faces and talk to their owners. Bring in local references to recent events and watch for the knowing smiles of approval. If someone begins to look drowsy increase your volume so sleeping will be more difficult. If people are inattentive lean forward and seem to talk confidentially. Make the materials of your talk sound both important and interesting. If you forget, don't worry, just look at your notes as a reminder, or go back over the last point you were making and try to recall what comes next. Repetition is a good form of supporting your generalizations anyhow.

While speaking keep aware of the lapse of time and the patience of your audience. Finishing all that you have to say is not nearly so important as having the audience understand and appreciate you. When but two or three minutes of your time remain your conclusion must begin regardless of how much speech material is still unsaid. Go to the prepared ending of the speech, be sure it summarizes or points up your previous remarks, and deliver it in such a way that it will make a lasting and favorable impression. Then sit down and await results.

Reaction to your speech may be mild or boisterous. Audiences vary in their patterns of demonstration from a polite patter of hand-clapping to an ovation. Sometimes a question period has been planned. Questions may be numerous or non-existent. Either situation must be accepted in good grace with gracious, enthusiastic, but brief answers, or a smile and acceptance of the lack of questions. After the meeting ends well-wishers may want to shake hands and pay you compliments. An important caution is to accept them but not to take them too seriously. For every spoken compliment, there may be two or more unspoken adverse criticisms. The important test of audience reaction is whether the audience responded as you had planned. If the speech was humorous, did people laugh in the right places? If you were appealing for action on a matter did the audience vote for it or otherwise show approval? What were the comments made to you a week after the meeting by members of the committee who planned it? Their soberly considered judgment following discussion with their friends is often the most accurate appraisal of your speaking efforts.

Following the speaking engagement, there isn't usually much to be done. If a fee was to be paid a check may be handed to you by someone after the meeting. If not, expect it in the mail within a few days. At any rate a courtesy note commenting on the hospitality which you have received will not be amiss. If anyone was especially kind to you a note of appreciation will be welcome. And what of your speech? While your efforts are still clear in mind take time to make revisions in outline or manuscript, looking forward to the day when again you may be invited to speak on the same subject.

Coming in November . . . . .

Look for "How to Make a Communication Survey," by Thomas R. Nilsen; "Public Speaking, Source and Force in History," by W. David Lewis; "A Study in Semantics in Industry Today," by Melville Hopkins; "The Formidable Imprints of Speech," by D. A. Barbara, M.D.; "Teedyuscung, Speaker for the Delawares," by Frank W. Merritt; and "What Do Students Care About Freedom of Speech?" by George P. Rice, Jr.

Why Take That Speech Course?

By EARL CAIN

Earl Cain (Ph.D. Northwestern University, 1950) is Instructor in Speech at the University of California at Los Angeles. His article on speaking in the U. S. Senate appeared in Today's Speech for April, 1955.

WITH SOME IRONY, a recent speech manual was dedicated to "those martyred students who have suffered unwillingly and without motivation through required speech courses in American colleges and universities." Each semester, many students find themselves enrolled, under protest, in a course in speech. Perhaps many of you, as beginning speech students, are in that group. My discussion is aimed primarily in your direction.

When told that they must take a course in the fundamentals of speech, some students complain that, "I speak well enough and can make myself understood with a fair degree of accuracy." Apparently to clinch the case, these students will add that they certainly don't intend to make a living in radio, television, or on the public platform. Any course, therefore, in the technique of the correct utterance of vowels, mutes, liquids and consonants would be a complete waste of time.

Are these possibly your opinions or doubts? The question I would ask of you who believe that you speak "well enough" is "well enough for what?" I may claim that I sing well enough, but this rash evaluation of my abilities assumes that I shall never test my musical skill before an audience, even an audience of one person.

Any university course should justify itself in promoting the general welfare of the students. A course in speech ranks near the top for the part it will play in your future. Most of your waking hours are spent in communicating orally your ideas to others. You may argue over the merits of politicians, cars, or courses in college; you may give directions; you may try to persuade the Dean that your absences from class are justified; or may simply engage in conversation on happenings of the day. Whatever your needs, skill in presenting your ideas will better qualify you for the demands of everyday social life.

Let us be certain, however, that we understand the kind of speech training you will receive. You would indeed find the speech course useless if the basic purpose were to produce exhibitionists who recite "Horatio at the Bridge" with gestures. This, it is hoped, is not the goal of your speech program.

The basic purpose of the beginning speech course is to train you to transfer your ideas to another as effectively as possible. A person who is truly effective in everyday speech must not only be capable of stating his thoughts in an orderly and clear manner; he must also have something worth saying. How many of us have been driven to frustration through listening to someone who could not organize his thoughts? The professional fields are filled with people who are timorous or tongue-tied in the everyday social and business situations which confront them.

You want to possess the ability to transfer your ideas and thoughts to others with increasing effectiveness; to analyze something for what it is really worth; to think it through logically; and to have the necessary poise and confidence to handle day-by-day situations. Speech training attempts to develop these qualities.

Speech training is part of your preparation for the business or professional career you may enter. The president of the American Stock Exchange, Edward T. McCormick, insists that, "Articulate leaders are of special importance today. Clear and fluent expression are essential elements of conference discussions . . . and in speaking to other citizens." The magazine, *Nation's Business,* conducted a survey among five thousand executives. These executives were asked to list in importance the subjects they would take if they could re-live their college years. In answer to the question, "Which subjects would have been the most effective in advancing my career?" English composition and effective speaking tied for first place. A president of one organization declared at a recent businessmen's luncheon: "Again and again I've seen men in my organization who were otherwise

11

well qualified never advanced beyond a certain point because they could not express themselves effectively."

College graduates have become aware of the truth neatly stated by George Crane, teacher and psychologist: "Isn't it a tragedy that smart men and women with a wealth of interesting experiences still don't know how to package their ideas attractively?" Lowell Thomas, who not only makes his living by appearing before the public but also has had experience in observing men from all walks of life, declared that, "If I were in charge of the schools of the world, I would put practice in public speaking first, followed by the three R's." Learning to speak and to think on your feet gives one a feeling of confidence and satisfaction which led Thomas to conclude that, "On your feet before an audience, more than at any other time, you are on your own, Brother!"

Training in speech is far different from mere memorization of and practice in basic principles of organization, language, voice, and bodily activity. Whenever you communicate an idea, you also communicate something of yourself to your listener. You reveal your ideas, your judgments, your standards of value, and your attitudes toward people. An audience will follow a speaker to the extent that they have confidence in him as a person. A fool or a wise man cannot speak publicly or privately without intelligent listeners becoming aware of his character. What a man is will invariably shape and fashion what he says. Thus, training in effective speech will include to some degree an intellectual, moral, and emotional development of the student. No teacher could claim for a one-semester course in speech a complete transforma-

tion of your personality. You should, however, realize more effectiveness in projecting to a listener the personality which you already possess. Any progress in this direction can be considered no small victory.

You may agree that the ability to express yourself before an audience is valuable. As the time approaches, however, for your first speech in class, the one great problem of beginning speakers plagues your efforts. This problem is fear and nervousness. Take encouragement from the fact that all speakers have faced this same problem, that all speech teachers make concerted efforts to develop confidence and poise in a student, and that sound direction and planning of your speeches will give you the means to tackle the fear of the speaking situation. As a matter of fact, practiced speakers encourage nervousness if it is properly controlled. Harry Emerson Fosdick, one of America's most effective pulpit speakers, warned that, "A man who isn't tense before he speaks, can't speak." Teachers of speech are not present to subject you to mental torment in the giving of speeches. They are there to help you master and utilize your fears.

Your speech course can be one of the most enjoyable and profitable courses in your college program. With conscientious application on your part, your speech training may give you the rash confidence possessed by one individual whose philosophy was, "If anyone is fool enough to ask me to speak, I'll be fool enough to do it!" It may even lead you on to the sounder conclusion that, "Whenever I speak, I'll be sure to have something to say that will be of value to my listeners!"

Which Is Cinderella?

The story of radio and television has been pictured as a battle of giants with the thrilling suspense question: which will survive! The answer is now clear — both will survive and both continue to flourish. We now have more television sets than refrigerators in the U. S. But the number of radio sets has expanded from 57,700,000 in pre-Tv 1946 to 132,400,000 sets in 1955. Meanwhile, lest we forget, radio "once upon a time" was to be the death of the phonograph: but under the simulus of hi-fidelity, the sales of both recorders and of records are booming to new highs. Conclusion: they're all Cindrellas!

CAPITALIZING
on Criticism

By MILTON J. WIKSELL

One of our pioneer circulation staff, Dr. Wiksell, now at Indiana University, offers valuable advice on self-anaylsis.

MANY TIMES YOUR FRIENDS WILL TELL YOU that you are doing a fine piece of work or that you gave an excellent speech. You feel highly complimented and you"ll cherish these remarks. But sometimes this is skillful flattery and it closes the eye to truth and sincerity. No one escapes criticism, and your performance was certainly not perfect. It is a common tendency to dislike the adverse commentary from a few who tell us the truth and not to give it fair consideration. Consequently, you lose an opportunity for self development. Perhaps many fail to realize that it is part of the duty of teachers, supervisors, ministers, physicians, parents, newspaper critics and others to criticize. How can you meet your critics and their comments and make good use of them?

At the outset, we might analyze some basic reasons which would occasion a judgment concerning you. Obviously, your critic questions your theories or your performance in some undertaking. It may be that you were criticized too much or that some minor incident was too strongly emphasized. A lack of tact or failure to give praise when praise is due does not ease the tension or feeling of insecurity in the job or the classroom. Your evaluator may have overlooked the principle that compliments and kindness work wonders in human relations. Also he might not realize how important good speech is in his own communication process. Poorly chosen words may have caused some misunderstanding. Your friend's tone of voice and his manner when addressing you may not have been friendly and understanding. There are those who feel that comments given orally and privately in a constructive fashion are more generally appreciated than written or publicly uttered admonitions. Your appraiser may not have followed either of these courses. Moreover, he may not have given you the criticism directly but expressed it to someone else. Here criticism seems to accompish the least good.

Let us suppose the estimation of your speech has been spoken in a fair, considerate and correct manner. It would be well to think of the appraisal as a necessary part of your daily work. Moreover, your self confidence will suffer if you don't consider your errors as evidence that you at least tried. Theodore Roosevelt once remarked that a man who doesn't make mistakes isn't doing anything.

Your advisor will naturally observe your reaction to the comments he is making regarding your work. He may ask himself—are you the kind of an individual who resents advice or do you receive recommendations well? In certain instances your whole future may depend upon what you say and do in these circumstances.

If you feel apprehensive when confronted with criticisms, you should attempt to employ an objective attitude. Try not to be overly concerned about it, for in many cases no personal insinuation has been intended. Perhaps thanking the person for his observations may well be worth the effort. He has given you some time from his busy day and competent criticisms such as his are often hard to get. Above all, avoid arguing in an emotional way. Lack of composure only reflects insecurity. If you cannot logically and tactfully explain your position, better not risk a chance of further complications by saying the wrong thing. The critic has expressed himself, so take advantage of the observations made by the qualified and experienced source.

There are perceptive individuals who realize the value of criticisms and capitalize on them. An experienced and successful salesman by the name of R. C. Chandler notes that if his company doesn't receive complaints before his competitors do, the fault hits him anyway—only harder. Attorney Joseph Welch mentioned in a television interview that he welcomed the number of sharp criticisms he received because they kept his feet on the ground. Many in professional life who have placed high premium on critical reviews have been the ones to attain success.

When no criticisms are received it may be time to take heed. It may, therefore, be a wise policy

to ask your supervisor how you are progressing. A businessman relates how his former employer never offered any suggestions concerning his work, but merely commended him. When promotion time came, upon losing out, he was told that he hadn't performed certain duties efficiently. This employee was irked, and rightfully so, because he had not received a complete estimation of his work at a time when it would have counted most.

Having been convinced that criticisms can be extremely valuable, how can you proceed to capitalize on them further? You probably realize that critical remarks have challenged many men and women to achieve greater accomplishments. Increased insight into your own habits is obtained by intelligent evaluation. If you can hear your own speech on a recording, you may detect unsuspected flaws, which fact will be a splendid motivation to do better. The instructor's professional advice and class discussion of pertinent questions are necessary for creditable work. Private consultation

with the professor has proved of extraordinary value to many students.

Those in the professional world may avail themselves of the opportunity of in-service training or further education in nearby colleges and universities. In these training centers there are available public speaking instruction, lectures, and various adult education courses. Available also are various institutes, conferences, interviews, conventions, and personality, interest and aptitude tests. Do not overlook professional magazines and books, as other useful agencies for self-development.

When you understand your shortcomings, do something about them. Begin in daily conversation or your work to utilize the prescribed course of action. Ask the assistance of your family, co-workers, roommate or friend in checking your faults. If you are personally motivated to consider the sentiments of those who criticize you and to convert errors into correct procedures, you'll unquestionably capitalize on criticism.

EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

By HAROLD E. NELSON

Director of Radio and Television at Penn State, Dr. Nelson has been a leader in the movement in educational use of the challenging television opportunities.

WIN FANNING WRITING IN THE PITTSBURGH *Post Gazette* of March 16, 1954, had this to say about educational television: "It has been the fashion among Radio and TV editors, newspaper publishers, the commercial televisors and a large portion of the public to look upon 'educational television' with favor, officially at least, just as they automatically take a dim view of sin. While this attitude may, in the main, be commendable, it is hardly destined to further the cause of educational television. For unlike sin, with its precepts clearly outlined by the Ten Commandments, the maxims of 'educational,' or as we prefer to call it, 'cultural' TV are but faintly defined."

This is a rather serious charge that Mr. Fanning has leveled against educational television. In part at least some of Mr. Fanning's accusations are justified. Some educational institutions seem to have jumped into television without clearly defining what they wanted to do with this new media of communication and without a clear concept of its economics. These stations are having their troubles. Granted that the purposes of educational television will perhaps never be as clearly defined as the Ten Commandments, it would be well to look back over the past two years to see what advances have been made by educators in the area of educational television.

In 1952 the FCC reserved 242 television channels for the use of educators and civic groups throughout the nation. This number has now grown to 251, with 83 having VHF frequencies and 168 UHF*. At the present time there are thirteen educational television stations on the air.

Thirty-five stations are in the process of construction and 25 are considered as applicants by the FCC. Ten of the operating stations are assigned to VHF channels and 3 to UHF channels.

---

* Very high frequency (VHF) includes channels 2 through 13. Ultra high frequency (UHF) includes the television channels above channel 13. Conventional television receivers are equipped to receive only VHF and require some modification of the set to be able to receive UHF.

WKAR in East Lansing is applying to the FCC to change from UHF to VHF. Those stations holding UHF channels are having the same problems as commercial stations in developing audiences in mixed VHF and UHF markets.

FINANCING

Educational television to date has been given a big shot in the arm through financial aid given it by the Ford Foundations Fund for Adult Education. It matches construction costs for stations on a one-for-two basis up to a maximum contribution of $150,000. Also the Ford Foundation has set up various national organizations to help educational television get underway and to help it keep going once started. One of these organizations, the Joint Committee on Educational Television, was started in 1950 and has as its executive director Ralph Steetle. It represents 7 educational organizations and offers services ranging from technical help in getting on the air to program aids. Whereas the JCET was set up primarily to aid educational institutions, the National Citizen's Committee for Educational Television was established to help communities set up television outlets. Mr. Robert Mullen is the executive director.

The latest national group to be established by the FAE is the Educational Television and Radio Center at Ann Arbor, Michigan, which was started in 1953. It is headed by Harry K. Newburn, former University of Oregon president, and its primary function is to serve as a program exchange. It handles films, kinescopes, scripts and gives grants to educational institutions to develop series of new programs.

To support these various organizations the Fund for Adult Education has expended the following sums: JCET, over $500,000; NCCET, over $600,000; and the ETRC, about $3,000,000.

The primary drawback to television, both educational and commercial, is its extreme high cost. This applies to studio construction, purchase of equipment and programming. State legislatures have been reluctant to establish state supported stations or networks. Alabama and Oklahoma

each appropriated about a half million dollars to establish statewide educational television authorities. In Wisconsin a state network was rejected in the recent election by a vote of 650,000 negative votes to 289,000 affirmative. Some of the opposition to state supported stations stems from the owners of commercial stations, who claim they will furnish time to educational institutions *gratis*.

THE FUTURE

Although it might seem that educational television to date has not progressed very rapidly, there is a brighter side to the picture and optimistic prospects that educators will ultimately make even wider use of television to knock out the walls of the existing classrooms to make education more available to the people at large. The JCET claims that in the near future 35 to 40 million people will be in the range of educational television stations. Also many educational institutions are now using commercial outlets for their programming. A sterling example of this type of cooperation between schools and commercial licensees is the Philadelphia area where telecasts are beamed both

into the schools and the homes to aid in the educative process. These programs range from the elementary level to the adult.

Also many educators who previously thought that standard telecast chains were financially out of their range are finding the new vidicon cameras to be more economically feasible. With this type of equipment used on a closed-circuit basis they can build up programming "know-how" and research to the point that when they do ultimately go on the air over their own or commercially owned facilities they will be putting their best foot forward.

It is hoped that ultimately our educational institutions can be linked together nationwide or regionally in live networks to assist each other program-wise and to broaden our appreciation of each other's problems and contributions. If this can eventually be accomplished, then this new media of communication, which some have claimed to be the greatest potential aid to education since the invention of the printing press, will realize its full possibilities.

IS RADIO DRAMA A DYING ART?

By DAVID WOODS

After a summer with television in San Francisco, Mr. Woods, formerly of Lehigh University, is now working for a doctorate at Ohio State University.

"WHAT IS A RADIO DRAMA?" The answer to this question has been argued, more or less consistently, since radio courses first began to invade the campuses of this country. Today, however, the question is of much less consequence than originally. The question is out of date. The phrasing should be changed to, "Where is radio drama?"

The answer to this might well be, "In your university library." There are actually more straight, dramatic radio scripts available in most libraries than you could hear in several months of continuous listening. Almost everyone old enough to remember the late thirties and early forties can recall the rapid growth in popularity of dramatic radio broadcasts. These programs were written and produced by such prominent men as Arch Obler, Norman Corwin, and Archibald MacLeish. The Second World War, naturally, gave impetus to these programs, but the general trend remained long after the war was over. To be sure, many of these broadcasts were actually documentaries rather than dramas, but none-the-less, many dramas and dramatic series were produced. Men of note were writing for radio, and their work was not only broadcast, but published, and published as radio scripts. Books such as *Free World Theatre* (Random House: New York, 1944) came out frequently, and these books involve important men and important thoughts.

This great increase in dramatic radio broadcasting did not go unnoticed in educational fields. New textbooks, filled with radio writing techniques, were rapidly issued. Most of the older books on the subject were hastily revised and republished. The boom was on! A new career had opened up! A new art form had developed! Learned men prophesied that radio drama would reach new heights not yet dreamed of!

It is now 1955. Television has come and stayed. Radio was supposed to go, but has not yet vanished. Both broadcasting media have finally become firmly entrenched in our way of life. Their future changes will probably be only modifications and improvements of the basic media as they stand today. How, then, has radio drama faired with the passage of time? Have the important programs lasted, or are the books all that remain? It has only been a little more than ten years since the radio play was a new and fast-growing art form. Who is practicing this form today? Where are their works on display for the public? In this article I will attempt to show what is presently available on the air in the way of dramatic radio plays.

Expense has limited the vast majority of radio dramas to the networks. Four major radio networks are in operation: the American Broadcasting Company, the Columbia Broadcasting System, the Mutual Broadcasting System, and the National Broadcasting Company. What types of radio plays and drama are they presenting today? I have examined the broadcasting schedules, furnished by the networks themselves, for the month of December, 1954. I have placed their listings of dramatic programs into a hypothetical week of broadcasting. The material to follow will be based on this week, which consists of all the regularly scheduled programs offered by the networks, and listed by them as being primarily dramatic.

Before examining the programs themselves, it might be well to set up a few classifications. By considering only regular broadcasts, special events, naturally, are eliminated. Most regular drama broadcasts break down into two major categories: serials and series programs. The serial is a program which has the same characters and in which the story-line runs continuously from one show until the next. In some cases only one of the characters will remain the same, but the story still requires more than one broadcast for completion. Another serial variation occurs when a particular story may end after several weeks, but another immediately takes its place. The radio dramatic serial is usually fifteen minutes in length, and is broadcast five times a week. Radio serials are very closely akin to the continuous comic strip in the newspapers. "One Man's Family" is, perhaps, the outstanding example of a long-standing, successful radio serial.

The serial's difference becomes more apparent when contrasted with a series program. The series drama is, today, one of three types. The first involves one or two of the same characters in adventures, which may be somewhat continuous, but are complete in a single broadcast. "The Lone Ranger" and "Dragnet" are well-known examples of this variety. Another type of series is typified by the "Lux Radio Theatre." These broadcasts have a regular format, but different types of unrelated dramatic scripts are presented weekly. It is this type of series which usually offers the opportunity for the most interesting and stimulating dramatic scripts, and perhaps almost all the straight, dramatic scripts. The last variation was typified by the now-defunct "Inner Sanctum." This series had no continuing characters, except Raymond, the hollow-voiced host, but the program had specific requirements, to which each week's script had to adhere.

Radio's tendency, naturally, has been to make it possible for the listener to know what to expect from a particular program each week. This has led to the frequent use of series shows of types one and three. The second type, the unrelated script, was in frequent use during the late thirties and early forties, with such shows as the "Mercury Theatre" and the "Columbia Workshop," but unfortunately it seems to be the least popular variety of dramatic broadcast today.

There are many forms of dramatic radio presented in these classifications. Historical, religious, western, crime, science-fiction, as well as straight dramatic programs are common. I have also included situation comedy programs since their general format is more like drama than any other type of broadcast.

The first classification of drama to be considered is the serial. The best known serials are the daytime shows, more commonly referred to as "soap operas." These programs have survived excessive criticism and the inroads of television, and are still being broadcast fifteen minutes a day, Monday through Friday. The perennial favorites are still around, and new series are being started. NBC's "Woman in Love," which runs twenty-five minutes per installment, began September 27, 1954. The offerings in daytime serials have spread so that now a listener can hear this type of program almost continuously from ten o'clock in the morning until six at night.

Three networks combine to offer a solid section of daytime serial drama with hardly a conflict for time between them. A listener in the eastern standard time zone begins the day with the local ABC outlet and such favorites as "My True Story", "Whispering Streets", "When A Girl Marries", "Modern Romances", and "Ever Since Eve." At eleven forty-five she must switch to CBS for "Rosemary." At noon there is a fifteen minute break for lunch, flavored, perhaps, with a bit of news. Twelve-fifteen and it's back to CBS, however, for the afternoon lineup: "Aunt Jenny", "Romance of Helen Trent", "Our Gal Sunday", "Road of Life", "Ma Perkins", "Young Dr. Malone", "Guiding Light", "The Second Mrs. Burton", "Perry Mason", "This is Nora Drake", "Brighter Day", and at three "Hilltop House."

There is one major decision here, since the listener must decide whether to listen to "Hilltop House" or join NBC at three-five for "Woman in Love." Of course the latter runs twenty-five minutes, so I imagine the story could be followed by hearing only the last ten minutes daily. The late afternoon is all NBC, as "Pepper Young's Family" arrives at three-thirty, followed by "Right to Happiness", "Backstage Wife", "Stella Dallas", "Young Widder Brown", "The Woman in My House", "Just Plain Bill", "Lorenzo Jones", and "Hotel For Pets." This last program is also fairly new and is notable in that it has animals talking like people, instead of people talking like animals. The general content of these programs has remained unchanged over the years. Murder, divorce, emotional upsets, amnesia, marriage, and other struggles against almost hopeless odds still mark the broadcasts. With their past history one of almost constant success, there is little likelihood of any change or improvement in the daytime serial.

Two serial programs, which were usually accorded the best critical reception, are now missing. These are "Vic and Sade" and "Lum and Abner." But even without these two, the daytime serials manage to fill almost thirty-five hours a week in the broadcasting spectrum. CBS has the largest number of daytime serials, with NBC a close second.

NBC is almost able to equal their rival when evening serials are considered. The aforementioned "One Man's Family" is still offered by NBC nightly, Monday through Friday, for fifteen minutes. The National Broadcasting Company also

has come up with something a little new in the way of serials. Two situation comedy programs are presented for fifteen minutes Sunday through Thursday evenings. Both are former weekly half-hour programs, "Fibber McGee and Molly" and "The Great Gildersleeve." Neither program has been changed much for the new method of presentation. The McGee broadcasts are more-or-less complete in themselves, while the Gildersleeve show attempts to run a more continuous story-line from episode to episode.

All the remaining dramatic programs are of the series type. The most popular variety is still the crime drama, and again CBS is the numerical leader. Almost half of their total is due, however, to the expansion of "Mr. Keen, Tracer of Lost Persons" into a daily half-hour program. Mr. Keen now makes his keen deductions nightly, Monday through Friday, at ten o'clock EST. Other CBS half-hour evening crime programs are: "Mr. and Mrs. North" (which abandoned the nightly serial idea), on Monday; "The FBI in Peace and War" and "Twenty-first Precinct", Wednesday; "Nightwatch", Thursday; "Crime Photographer", Friday; and the old stand-by, "Gangbusters", heard Saturday evening.

Second place in crime offerings goes to the Mutual Broadcasting System, which lists: "The Shadow" and "Nick Carter," on Sunday afternoon; "Top Secret Files" and "Broadway Cop", on Monday evening; "Treasury Agent," on Tuesday; "Squad Room" and "Sentenced," on Wednesday; "Official Detective" and "Crime Fighters," on Thursday; and "Counterspy" on Friday. All these programs are also thirty minutes in length.

NBC follows the leader with the biggest money-maker, "Dragnet," heard every Tuesday evening. Other NBC crime programs are: "Barrie Craig" and "The Adventures of the Abbots," both heard on Sunday. The New Year was scheduled to return "Sherlock Holmes" to the air on Sunday, and shift "Barrie Craig" to Wednesday evening.

None of these crime programs is particularly remarkable, except for their overall similarity. There has been a tremendous increase in the number of programs concerned with actual law enforcement officers, particularly on Mutual. The master detective, formally typified by gentlemen such as Ellery Queen, is being forced to take a back seat to the "regular guy," such as Joe Friday, or in some cases, a mere policeman.

A fairly close second in program types is the western drama. Mutual is the leading producer in this area with an hour segment devoted to westerns Monday through Friday. Monday, Wednesday, and Friday afternoons a half-hour of "Wild Bill Hickok" is replaced by "Sergeant Preston of the Yukon." "The Bobby Benson Show," which is heard daily for half an hour, is getting less and less dramatic.

ABC holds second spot in western drama programming, with a nightly half-hour. The ever-popular "Lone Ranger" holds the fort every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday evening, "Silver Eagle" takes over Tuesday and Thursday nights. NBC offers "Dr. Six Gun" on Sundays, and the "Roy Rogers Show", which includes music, on Thursday evenings. The CBS western output is small, but it is perhaps the best program, dramatically speaking, of the group. "Gunsmoke," the award-winning series depicting the exploits of Marshall Mat Dillon, is broadcast twice weekly. Two different programs are offered, one on Saturday afternoon, and one Saturday evening.

Situation comedy programs have apparently taken the biggest beating from television, since only five half-hour shows remain. CBS stands almost alone here with their two-hour Sunday evening segment of "Jack Benny," "Amos n' Andy," "Our Miss Brooks," and "My Little Margie." "The Nutrilite Show," with Dennis Day on NBC Sunday afternoon also offers some situation comedy, but this one-time vanguard of radio threatens to join the dinosaur and the radio comedian in extinction.

Previously, I have bemoaned the lack of "straight dramatic" shows on the air today. There are four programs, which I classify in this category, still being broadcast. CBS offers two, both of which are a half-hour in length. Sunday afternoon is the "Hallmark Hall of Fame," which needs no introduction to television viewers. Thursday evening you can still be kept in "Suspense," a program, which by virtue of outstanding scripts and production, rises, in my estimation, far above the general crime drama. "Suspense" offers what is probably the widest variety of dramatic scripts on the air today. NBC's straight dramatic offering is the film-glorifying "Lux Radio Theatre," heard Tuesday evening for a full hour. Another old-timer still active is the "Chicago Theatre of the Air," heard for an hour on Mutual Sunday night.

This program has shown a tendency toward music and musicals of late, but is still generally dramatic.

Religious drama has three remaining half-hour programs. Mutual offers "Family Theatre" Wednesday evening, ABC has the "Greatest Story Ever Told" on Sunday morning, and "The Eternal Light" is heard Sunday morning over NBC.

All of the remaining dramatic programs exist as single examples of their type, and all are a half hour in length. Probably the program which is most consistent is "Inheritance," heard on NBC Sunday afternoon, an historical drama series depicting the life of a notable American figure. NBC also offers the only newspaper drama, "The Big Story," Wednesday evening. ABC presents the sole science-fiction drama, "Space Patrol", on Saturday morning. CBS has two other series programs, both heard Saturday afternoon. "Romance" is an example of romantic drama, and "City Hospital" presents weekly stories revolving about the medical world.

These programs, then, are what remain in radio drama almost ten years after the rise of television. CBS and NBC dominate the offerings in dramatic serials with approximately nineteen and sixteen hours of broadcasting, respectively, a week. Mutual and CBS offer the largest total of series drama programs, and lead in total number of hours broadcast with eleven and a half and ten and a half each.

The total offerings of both serial and series drama broadcasts is seventy-two hours a week. This breaks down to thirty hours for CBS, twenty-one and a half hours for NBC, eleven and a half for Mutual, and nine and a half hours for ABC. There seems to be little correlation as to program excellence, as the superior programs are pretty well split up among the networks. The daytime serial is the only drama type to hold its own. The straight dramatic program appears doomed. The future shows little chance for improvement, and I am afraid that only a rash optimist would fail to toll the bell for radio drama at its best. The theatre of the mind is evidently too old-fashioned for modern man.

The object of this brief survey has not been merely to praise and condemn, but to point out to those people who may not follow radio too closely today exactly what type of dramatic fare is now being offered. I hope there are still some people who remember that "Studio One" began as a radio program, and perhaps a few who care.
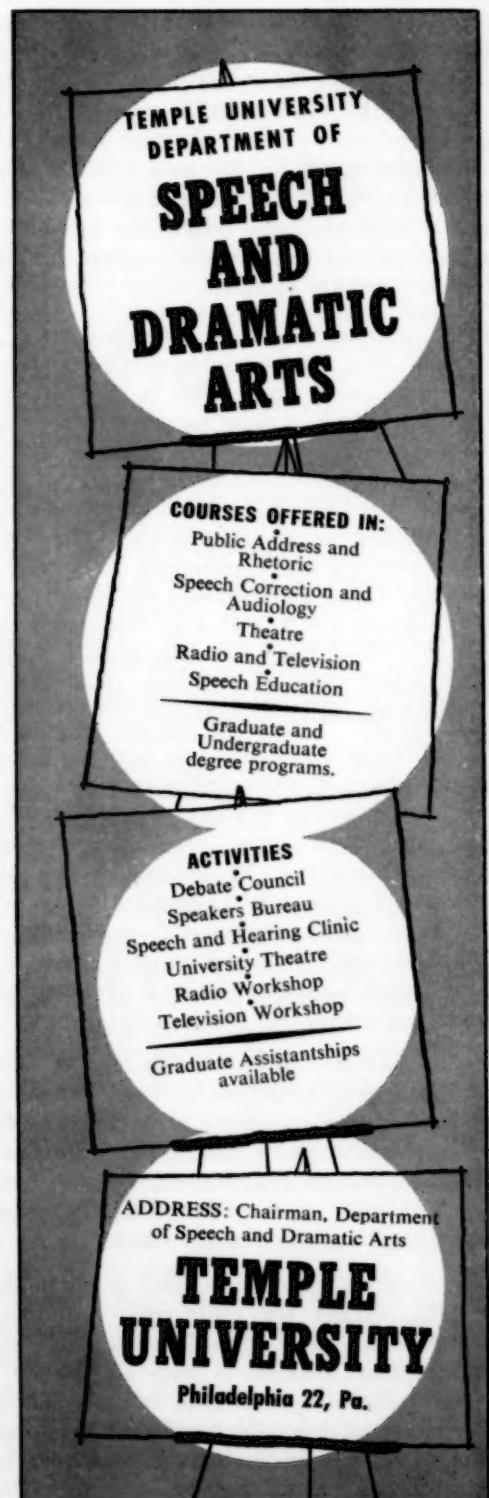
GROUP DYNAMICS

As a Factor in Speech Communication

By ALAN KARSTETTER

In this study, conducted at Penn State, Mr. Karstetter examines the nature, history, and contributions of the developing concepts of group dynamics — a fruitful area for practical research.

Every parent has noticed that children do not behave the same before company as they do when playing alone, or when in the familiarly intimate family circle. It is no secret that the feeling, thinking, and behavior of adults is similarly affected by group-participation. A 1935 article by John F. Dashiell, "Experimental Studies of the Influence of Social Situations on the Behavior of Individual Human Adults," in Carl Murchison's *Handbook of Social Psychology*, summarized much of what was known at that date about audience-effects upon individual performance. Since that date new impetus has been given to the study of the influential group-effects upon the group's members by a widely varied number of experimenters who subscribe to a field known loosely as "group dynamics."

As Macaulay was fond of saying, "every schoolboy knows" that acts performed in the presence of observers are subject to emotional stresses and stimulation not noticeable when similar acts are performed alone. Such affects take on additional significance when the action, speech, or judgment is the result of group participation, not merely done under audience observation. In some instances, "bad" results (such as stage fright) are noted. In others, "good" results (such as heightened effort) are observed. The purpose of this paper is to evaluate what the group dynamicists have discovered or theorized concerning the multiple effects upon the individual of group participation.

DEFINITION

One of the difficulties obscuring comprehension of the term "group dynamics" is that, like medicine, it has two referents: one an area of research, the other an 'applied' approach to practical problems of group functioning. Bradford and Lippitt wrote in 1948:

> Group dynamics endeavors to study the why of what happens in groups. It is an area of research in the process by

which groups work—discuss, reach decisions, plan action, and carry it into effect. It is an area of research in the group aspects of social change. It is the application of research findings in producing greater group productivity, in developing the growth of groups, and improving individuals in their sensitivity to what is happening in the group and in their ability to assume more efficiently group leadership and membership responsibilities.

A distinction should be made between a group and a mere aggregation. A group refers to two or more people bearing a dynamic psychological relationship to one another and having common explicit goals. An aggregation of strangers in an elevator may have a common intent, but if there is no interaction, they do not form a group in this sense.

"Dynamics" implies an emphasis on process. Research in group dynamics focuses on the movement of the group toward its goal, and the techniques learned in group dynamics training are employed to aid the group's understanding of its processes in the belief that it can thereby more quickly realize its goals.

One of the phases of group dynamics research that should be understood is the attempt to integrate the social sciences. Workers have come from diverse fields and brought their sundry special skills to probe the problems of group process; group dynamics cannot be identified solely with speech, individual psychology, social psychology, sociology, or any other recognized academic discipline. Nor should it be thought of as a separate, new discipline.

HISTORY

The interest in group behavior is certainly not new. Aristophanes in the *Lysistrata* presents what might be interpreted as a study of the defections

and cohesiveness of a group in which the individuals move in conflicting force fields, and Plato's *Republic* might be considered a study in group structure. But the empirical investigation of the *dynamic* properties of the small face-to-face group, distinctive from the static properties of the individuals within that group, had its relatively recent genesis in the work of such social scientists of the 1920's as Lindemann and Follett, in the work of conference experts, and in the concern of psychiatrists and psychoanalysts with interpersonal events in two-person systems. Freud first explored the interaction between doctors and their patients, with his thesis of resistance and transference, and Sullivan expanded Freud's notions with his theory of the transmission of anxiety from person to person.

Early research in small groups, before the origin of the term "group dynamics", included studies of the influence of the group on individual opinion and comparisons of competitve and non-competitive situations; but there was little if any investigation into the *process* of group discussion or interaction, it being generally felt impossible rigorously to appraise its dynamic nature. We cannot infer, however, that there was not interest in the process. Early writers in speech and in social psychology showed much concern with what happens in the discussion group, and the observations of some, notably those of Elliott, have been borne out by later research.

Systematization of research methods in group dynamics was not achieved until Kurt Lewin brought a fresh approach and acumen to the problems of measuring experimentation with "collections on the wing." A German born and German-educated Gestalt psychologist who came to America in the early 1930's, Lewin devised topological and vector psychology and developed the principles of "action research." He saw the group as a field of power providing a role for each member. Thinking of the individual in the group, he redefined behavior as the product of interaction between the personality of the individual and the culture of the group—written as a formula, $Bph=f(P)(E)$.*

Lewin's perception of the group as a unit does not perpetuate the group-mind fallacy of LeBon,

---

* Phenomenological behavior (Bph) is the function (f) of personality (P) and environmental aspects (E). Bph is overt or inferred (from overt) behavior. See bibliographical references 83, 114, 116.

which still persists in nonscientific literature; on the other hand, Lewin knew that groups could not be understood only in terms of their parts. He said:

> ". . .there is no more magic behind the fact that groups have properties of their own, which are different from the properties of their subgroups or their individual members, than behind the fact that molecules have properties which are different from the properties of the atoms or ions of which they are composed."

Research in group dynamics was inaugurated with the classic experiments of Lewin, Lippitt, and White with the social structure of boys' clubs. In those experiments they demonstrated that action research was feasible, that experimenters could control, within limits, the conditions under which the group operated in order to measure the variables. The experiments were significant, too, in establishing some important concepts about the nature of democracy, anarchy, and authoritarianism. They showed that democracy is not a mere blend of the other two forms but requires skills of leadership quite different from those of the autocrat and much more positive than the laissez-faire "leadership."

During World War II, the need was great for understanding groups in action, and research and application of the newly learned techniques proceeded rapidly—in industry, in the armed forces, and in several universities. Because of their zealous wish to serve imperiled democracy, Lewin and his followers often made the error of confusing laboratory and clinic, thus baring their methods to considerable criticism. Much progress has been made since the war in developing a more rigorous research methodology.

The "group dynamicists" feel that there has been a shift of emphasis from a desire to find ways and means of manipulating groups to "an attempt to focus research effort upon the problems of how groups function and upon the methods for improving the functioning of groups" in order to achieve a "basic understanding of democratic group functioning." Lewin wrote in 1944:

> It is less than ten years ago that, defying hosts of prejudices, the attempt was made to proceed from *descriptive* studies of social relations and attitudes to what may be called "action research" on groups. It is not merely the nearness to

problems of the practice which lies behind this particular interest in changes, but the fact that the study of experimentally created changes gives a deeper insight into the dynamics of group life. . . . Only experiments in changes can, finally, lay open the deeper layers of group dynamics.

There is nothing so very new in group dynamics. Traditional methods of science have been expanded—or slackened—and applied to areas where heretofore they have not been. Group dynamicists have borrowed from many sources: from progressive education, adult education, discussion, psychology sociometry, etc. Much of the research has merely substantiated "what everyone knew all along." As Bain has pointed out, "Action research deals with what sociologists have been calling social problems and social conflict for over fifty years. Group dynamics and social process appear to mean about the same thing." But the group dynamicists have not been content to theorize only; they have taken the essential scientific attitude of "I don't know. Let's see." They say, in effect, "We can test our hypotheses about group process; we can continue to develop better techniques to recognize and control the many variables involved in group study; we can go beyond experimentation and make use of what we have learned to improve what in our value system we conceive to be democratic process."

Lewin did not write a book on group dynamics. He felt that pioneering research and teaching were far more important, and, furthermore, that definitive answers to only a few questions had been made from research prior to his death in 1947. Indeed, even in 1953, Cartwright and Zander, in their book *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory*, indicated that an integrative summary of the field was premature.

Some of the journals publishing research reports in group dynamics are *The Journal of Social Issues*, *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *The Journal of Experimental Psychology*, and *Human Relations*. The last-named has been published jointly since 1947 by the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations in London and The Research Center for Group Dynamics at the University of Michigan, and is devoted almost entirely to consideration of the face-to-face group.

Literature touching upon group dynamics has grown at a phenomenal rate in the last ten years. That of most interest to the field of speech has been ably reviewed by Franklin Haiman in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Reference to other works is found in the bibliography following this paper.

TRENDS IN RESEARCH

Group research workers concur on at least one thing: their recognition of the disparate approaches and resultant conflicts in studying the phenomena of interaction. Cartwright and Zander list three sources of apparent conflict: (1) theories are sometimes drawn by people who work with only one type of group; (2) research has been motivated by heterogeneous social concerns; and (3) there is no common vocabulary or laboratory technique. Haiman cites as an example of the last point that what Bales calls "social-emotional task areas," Homans calls "internal and external systems." These, however, might well be surface problems—inconvenient, but not irreconcilable.

More important are the genuine differences of opinion among research workers about such problems as: (1) at what stage between raw empiricism and rigorous formalism has the science arrived; (2) which concepts, units of phenomenological interaction, invariant relationships, significant details, etc. are data common to all groups and which are descriptions arising from the involvement of the scientist with his material; (3) what language can convey felt meanings, insights, significant events in the group, etc., without missing a "real" factor (recognizing that language structures the observation); (4) which should come first: development of better techniques of measurement or continued experimentation from which it is hoped that the improved techniques will grow?

The fact that many different methods are being used to cultivate the very young field of group dynamics should not destroy its productivity. On the contrary, the cause for consternation should also be cause for joy: had the workers approached the study of group process with a ready-made set of tools from a single other field they surely would have missed much of the insight that different approaches have brought. They need not clamor for synthesis of methodologies and establishment of dogma at this time.

Space will not permit a description of the techniques which are used for measuring interaction nor of those which are used as training devices. Descriptions, detailed and brief, are available in many sources, some of which are noted in the bibliography. Speech people may well be con-

cerned with these techniques, but this paper does not presume to be a textbook in group dynamics.

Any attempt to classify research studies by their similarities in order to summarize findings must necessarily involve arbitrary categories. When a scientist works with a group he cannot possibly isolate a single aspect of the process in a Petri dish for separate study. Writers who have tried to generalize the theorems of group dynamics have recognized that their classifications have been partial and overlapping. Cartwright and Zander in the most comprehensive review to date draw four general characteristics of groups and cite research relevant to those characteristics: (1) Group Cohesiveness, (2) Group Pressures and Group Standards, (3) Group Goals and Group Locomotion, and (4) Structural Properties of Groups. Keltner makes a dichotomy for the purpose of summary between "Dimensions and Structural Properties" and "Skills and Functions." Others make what seem to them to be valid generalizations from experiments and observations of groups in action. The present study abstracts a few aspects of group dynamics research, selected and classified more or less arbitrarily under five sections.

1. *Physical arrangements.* Studies by Bass and others indicate that for leaderless discussions, six members is perhaps the optimum number for emergent leadership from all members, and that the seat a member takes in a V-shaped seating arrangement has little effect in determining his tendencies to attain leadership status. Seinzor found, however, that seating is important in determining who talks to whom, since greatest interaction takes place between those sitting opposite each other in a circle.

2. *Group health.* Groups, it seems, can grow up, become mature, and then become senile, much as human beings do, except that time is not the important factor in the maturation process. Zander has outlined some of the causes of groups outliving their usefulness and discusses the symptoms of senility. Often, he implies, the best remedy is group-suicide.

Essential to the good health of the group is what the group dynamicists call "cohesiveness"— a sense of "we-ness" rather than "I-ness". In the Introduction to Part II of their book, Cartwright and Zander have given an excellent analysis of the factors which increase and decrease the attraction of the group or "valence" for its members. They also discuss some of the methods which have been used to measure cohesiveness. Where cohesiveness is high, the members make more serious efforts in the discussions and are more influenced by the discussion. Where cohesiveness is low, members act as individuals rather than as groups. High cohesiveness produces greater resistance to frustration, and greater group control of productivity.

3. *Solving problems.* As far back as 1928, Watson observed: "The product of group thinking is distinctly superior to that of the average and even that of the best member of the group." More recent studies have modified that conclusion somewhat, but it is quite safe to agree with it up through the word "average." Shaw, Timmons, and Maier bear out the general conclusion and suggest some of the factors which make it true. Deutsch has shown that cooperative groups produce better solutions than do highly competitive individuals, and Maier proved that if a skilled leader is introduced, a group that is floundering on a problem will arrive at a solution more easily, even though the leader in no way suggests it. Experiments with intra-group communication patterns have demonstrated that group performance depends in a large measure on the channels of communication— who is able to talk to whom. Some study, though not enough to be conclusive, has been devoted to defining the phases through which a group moves in solving a problem.

4. *Operation of group pressures.* Perhaps more studies have been reported on the effects of the group on judgment of facts, forming of attitudes, communication, and behavior of the individuals than on any other dimension of the group process save leadership. The fact that there are many such studies is probably due to the comparative ease with which the results are measured. Whatever the reason, the following conclusions based on the studies seem warranted: (a) Group pressures which originate consciously are no stronger than those which "come about." (b) The intents behind communication activity are largely determined by group pressures. (c) The pressure for conformity to the group norm is very strong; pressure, as reflected by communication, is directed mostly at deviates, less at models; many members, even when anonymous, would rather be in agreement with the majority opinion than they would to be right about the facts or consistent with their own best judgment. (d) A reported change in attitude may be a compromise between real attitude and the group norm and is not always accompanied by a concomitant change

in behavior. (e) Group discussion is more potent in effecting attitude and behavior changes than is the lecture method, and group-centered units are more potent in effecting such changes than are leader-centered units.

5. *Leadership.* It would be impossible to give the kind of brief summary on research in leadership that has been here attempted in other dimensions of group process. Three very general statements must suffice: (a) The several functions of leadership are rarely vested in a single individual but are sometimes taken by every participatory member. (b) Participatory leaders are more effective in helping groups to grow than are supervisory leaders. (c) Leadership methods can be taught.

GROUP DYNAMICS AND SPEECH

A recent article in a speech journal states that more books on discussion are being written by people outside the realm of speech than by speech specialists. Many of these books mirror the biases of group dynamics. What, then, of the people in speech? Have they overlooked or slighted these discoveries, the implications of which for discussion at least are so patent? In response to that query, one professor of public speaking and discussion said in a letter to the writer:

> I suspect that the reason you haven't been able to find much evidence of this influence in the speech literature is simply that is has not yet permeated our field to any noticeable extent. Its impact on education and social psychology has been much greater; largely, I think, because people in those fields have been much more eager to learn what it has to offer. Many speech people seem to be more pre-occupied with defending themselves against it.

Indeed, we find that such recent books in the field of discussion as Behl's, Baird's and Chenowith's pay literally no attention to group dynamics. Baird probably typifies the Aristotle-Dewey approach, so a closer scrutiny may illuminate the factors of academic isolationism that have prevailed in this area. Discussion, according to Baird, should be structured to some ideal formula of thought in order to be an "issue-clarifier," a prelude to the more serious academic business of debate. Schools should train their students in the art of making their discussions follow an out-

line. "Discussants are on the side of logic, scientific method, and dispassionate review," says Baird. It would seem that while discussants are on its side, the popular shibboleth, "scientific method," is too much for many authors of discussion books to handle.

At least one speech professor, Robert Gunderson, has been highly critical of group dynamics, saying of role-playing that it is "reminiscent of the medieval morality plays. . .absurd as a method for the discussion and solution of serious public questions." Of sociograms: "routine experimental procedure, the Bethelites apparently feel that they have happened upon new ritual." Of the vocabulary: "a conglomeration of loosely defined terms chosen from the sporting arena, the theatre and the fraternity lounge—as well as from the scientific laboratory." Of research: "The observer crowds into his test tube with the experiment. . ."

A more realistic approach to discussion than Baird's and a friendlier attitude toward group dynamics than Gunderson's are taken by Ewbank and Auer, who admit, "Discussion seldom provides an orderly analysis." In the revised edition of their *Discussion and Debate*, they include a new chapter entitled "Special Discussion Techniques," which deals with role-playing, "discussion 66." In the December, 1954 issue of *Advanced Management*, Harold P. Zelko discusses five such "special" methods under the title, "Beware of the Gimmicks."

More receptive has been Franklyn Haiman of Northwestern University, who offers three courses "which bear something of the imprint of the 'group dynamics movement,'" and who has written a textbook, *Group Leadership and Democratic Action*, which presents many of the principles of group dynamics. John Keltner, of the University of Oklahoma, teaches two courses which are strongly group dynamics oriented and has directed three theses "wedding" group dynamics and speech. His booklet, *Working Together through Discussion* shows clearly a move away from traditional notions of discussion in speech curricula, and the symposium, "Problems in the Measurement of Discussion," was published under his direction. Irving Lee, of Northwestern, has been doing some intriguing work with discussion and conference methods. Drawing from general semantics, group dynamics, and parliamentary procedure, he has developed some workable techniques for what he calls "coercing" agreement.

Scattered around the country are other speech teachers—Barnlund at Northwestern, Storey at Michigan, Ives at Dartmouth, Howell at Minnesota, Crowell at the University of Washington, and others—who believe that group dynamics has been helpful to their teaching of discussion. Howell and Smith try to strike a compromise between the "group dynamics approach" and the "dialetical approach," feeling that each has something to offer, each is limited. "Popularity of 'group dynamics approaches' to discussion and other types of human relations is a result of our fairly recent preoccupation with the basic irrationality of man." Logic, however, is an inadequate tool for analysis of non-logical behavior. "Dynamics, yes, but in a disciplined context of truly dialetical attitudes and skills."

To be sure, the influence is beginning to be felt on discussion, but what of other areas of speech? The present writer was unable to ascertain whether anyone has intimated that the findings of group dynamics resarch might cast some light on such thorny problems as audience analysis.[*] Surely a speaker could profit from a knowledge of what restraints are operating in his audience, what degree of cohesiveness his audience has developed, and what techniques he may use to stimulate interaction during a question-answer period.

In the realm of dramatics, the writer sees potentiality for very fruitful application of group dynamics knowledge to the tasks of casting and directing a play. Is there a group that must work together more intimately than the cast and crew of a stage production? Knowledge of group dynamics might very conceivably aid, too, in the psychological interpretation of the action and characters of a drama. "The Cherry Orchard," "The Lower Depths," and "Heartbreak House" are plays which come to mind immediately as being "group studies."

What of oral interpretation, radio, debate? This is not a suggestion that the whole speech curriculum be revamped so that every speech class becomes a clinic for group dynamics training, but are we not obligated carefully to examine whatever ideas any other field offers which may be of some help in the complex task of improving oral communication?

---

[*] Approaches to this problem are found in *Integrative Speech* by Elwood Murray, Raymond H. Barnard, and Jasper V. Garland; and in *Persuasive Speaking*, by Robert T. Oliver.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Allport, F. H., "Methods in the Study of Collective Action Phenomena," *Journal of Social Psychology*, XV (1942), 165-185.

Asch, S. E., "Effects of Group Pressure upon the Modifications and Distortion of Judgments," *Readings in Social Psychology*, New York, Henry Holt, 1952.

——————, "The Doctrines of Suggestion, Prestige, and Imitation in Social Psychology," *Psychological Review*, LV (1948), 250-276.

Back, Kurt W., "Influence through Social Communication," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLV (1951), 9-23.

——————, "Interpersonal Relations in a Discussion Group." *Journal of Social Issues*, IV (1948), 61-65.

Bain, Read, "Action Research and Group Dynamics," *Social Forces*, XXX (1951), 1-10.

Bales, Robert F., *Interaction Process Analysis*, Cambridge, Mass., Addison-Wesley Press, 1949.

——————, and F. L. Strodtbeck, "Phases in Group Problem Solving," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLV (1951), 485-495.

Barnes, Fred, "A College Class Discovers Group Dynamics," *Educational Leadership*, V (February, 1948), 306-312.

Barron, Margaret E., and Gilbert K. Krulee, "Case Study of a Basic Skill Training Group," *Journal of Social Issues*, IV No. 2 (1948), 10-30.

Bass, B. M., "An Analysis of the Leaderless Group Discussion," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXIII (1949), 527-633.

Bass, B. M., "The Leaderless Group Discussion Technique," *Personnel Psychology*, III (1950), 17-32.

——————, and Stanley Klubeck, "Effects of Seating Arrangement on Leaderless Group Discussions," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVII (1952), 724-727.

——————, and Fay-Tyler M. Norton, "Group Size and Leaderless Discussions," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXV (1951), 397-400.

Bavelas, Alex, and Kurt Lewin, "Training in Democratic Leadership," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXXVIII (January, 1942), 115-119.

Bavelas, Alex, and Kurt Lewin, "Training in Democratic Leadership," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXXVIII (January, 1942), 115-119.

Baxter, Bernice, and Rosalind Cassidy, *Group Experience —The Democratic Way*, New York, Harper, 1943.

Benne, Kenneth D., Leland Bradford, and Ronald Lippitt, *Group Dynamics and Social Action*, New York, Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1950.

Benne, Kenneth D., Ronald Lippitt, and Leland P. Bradford, "Toward Improved Skill in Group Living: A Discussion," *Educational Leadership*, V (February, 1948), 286-294.

——————, and Paul Sheats, "Functional Roles of Group Members," *Journal of Social Issues*, IV (1948), 41-49.

Bion, W. R., "Experiences in Groups," *Human Relations*, 1 (1948), II (1949), and III (1950).

——————, "Group Dynamics: A Review," *International Journal of Psychoanalysis*, XXXIII (1952), 235-247.

Bovard, E. W., Jr., "Group Structure and Perception," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVI (1951), 398-405.

Bradford, Leland P., "The Use of Psychodrama for Group Consultants," *Sociatry*, I (1947), 192-197.

——————, Kenneth Benne, and Ronald Lippitt, "The Promise of Group Dynamics for Education," *National Education Association Journal*, XXXVII (September, 1948), 350-352.

——————, and John R. P. French, Jr., Issue Editors,

"The Dynamics of the Discussion Group," *Journal of Social Issues*, IV (Spring, 1948).

Brady, William, "Judging Candidates by Observing Them in Unsupervised Group Discussion," *Personnel Journal*, XXVI (1947), 170-173.

Burtt, H. E. "Sex Differences in the Effect of Discussion," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, III (1920), 390-395.

Cantor, Nathaniel, *Learning Through Discussion*, Buffalo, Human Relations for Industry, 1951.

Carter, L. F., W. Haythorn, Beatrice Shriver, and J. Lanzetta. "The Behavior of Leaders and Other Group Members," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVI (1951), 589-595.

Cartwright, Dorwin, "Achieving Change in People: Some Applications of Group Dynamics Theory," *Human Relations*, IV (November, 1951), 381-392.

_____, and Alvin Zander, *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory*, Evanston, Ill., Row Peterson and Co., 1953.

Cattell, Raymond B., "Concepts and Methods in the Measurement of Group Syntality," *Psychological Review*, LV (1948), 48-63.

_____, and Lauren G. Wispe, "The Dimensions of Syntality in Small Groups," *Journal of Social Psychology*, XXVIII (1948), 57-78.

Chapple, E. D., "The Interaction Chronograph: Its Evolution and Present Application," *Personnel*, XXV (1949), 295-307.

Chase, Stuart, *Roads to Agreement*, in collaboration with Marian Tyler Chase, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1951.

Cohen, John, "The Technique of Role-Reversal: A Preliminary Note," *Occupational Psychology*, XXV (1951), 64-66.

Dashiell, J. F., "Experimental Studies of the Influence of Social Situations on the Behavior of Individual Human Adults," *A Handbook of Social Psychology*, Ed. Carl Murchison, Worchester, Mass., Clark University Press, 1935, 1097-1158.

Deutsch, Morton, "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Cooperation and Competition upon Group Processes," *Human Relations*, II (1949), 199-232.

_____, "A Theory of Cooperation and Competition," *Human Relations*, II (1949), 129-152.

Elliott, Harrison S., *The Process of Group Thinking*, New York, Association Press, 1928.

Festinger, L. and J. Thibaut, "Interpersonal Communication in Small Groups," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVI (1951), 92-99.

Follett, Mary P., *Creative Experience*, New York, Longmans, Green, 1924.

Fouriezos, N. T., M. L. Hutt, and H. Guetzkow, "Measurement of Self-Oriented Need in Discussion Groups," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLV (1950), 682-690.

French, R. L., "Verbal Output and Leadership Status in Initially Leaderless Discussion Groups," *American Psychologist*, V (1950), 310-311.

French, John R. P., Jr., "The Disruption and Cohesion of Groups," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXXVI (1941), 361-377.

_____, "Retraining an Autocratic Leader," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXXIX (April, 1944), 224-237.

Gordon, Thomas, "Group-Centered Leadership and Administration," Chapter VIII in *Client-Centered Therapy*, by Carl R. Rogers, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951.

Green, N. E., "Verbal Intelligence and Effectiveness of Participation in Group Discussion," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLI (1950), 440-445.

Gunderson, Robert Gray, "Dangers in Group Dynamics," *Religious Education*, XLVI (1951), 342-344.

_____, "Group Dynamics: Hope or Hoax?" *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXVI (February, 1950), 34-38.

Haiman, Franklyn S., *Group Leadership and Democratic Action*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1950.

_____, "Materials in Group Dynamics," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XL (1954), 201-206.

Hardee, Melvene, and Bernauer, Margaret, "A Method of Evaluating Group Discussion," *Occupations*, XXVII (1948), 90-94.

Heise, G. A., and G. A. Miller, "Problem Solving by Small Groups Using Various Communication Nets," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVI (1951), 327-336.

Hemphill, John K., and Charles M. Westie, "The Measurement of Group Dimensions," *Journal of Psychology*, XXIX (1950), 325-342.

Henry, George H., "The Group Process as Idea," *Educational Leadership*, VII (April, 1950), 453-461.

Herrold, Kenneth F., "Evaluation and Research in Group Dynamics," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, X (1950), 492-504.

Horowitz, M. W., J. Lyons, and H. V. Perlmutter, "Induction of Forces in Discussion Groups," *Human Relations*, IV (1957), 57-76.

Howell, William S., and Donald K. Smith, "Discussion Re-examined," *The Central States Speech Journal*, Part I, V, 1 (1953), 3-7, Part II, V, 2 (1954), 21-24.

Jacques, Elliott, "Interpretative Group Discussion as a Method of Facilitating Social Change," *Human Relations*, I (1948) 433-439.

Jenkins, D. H., "Research in Group Dynamics," *Social Education*, XII (December, 1948), 347-350.

_____, "What is Group Dynamics," *Social Education Journal*, IX (1950), 54-60.

Jenness, A., "Social Influences in the Change of Opinion; the Role of Discussion in Changing Opinion Regarding a Matter of Fact," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXVII (1932), 29-34.

Kelman, Herbert C., "Group Dynamics—Neither Hope Nor Hoax," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXVI (1950), 371-377.

Keltner, John, "An Introduction to Research on the Aspect and Functions of Groups," (Unpublished dittoed report submitted to Research Committee of White House Conference, at their request), June, 1950.

_____, *Working Together through Discussion* (mimeographed booklet), Norman, Oklahoma, University of Oklahoma, 1953.

Klugman, S. F., "Cooperative Versus Individual Efficiency in Problem-Solving," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXV (1944), 91-100.

Krech, David, and Richard S. Crutchfield, *Theory and Problems of Social Psychology*, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1948.

Lasker, Bruno, *Democracy Through Discussion*, New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1949.

Leavitt, H. J., "Some Effects of Certain Communication Patterns on Group Performance," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVI (1951), 38-50.

_____, and R. A. H. Mueller, "Some Effects of Feedback on Communication," *Human Relations*, IV (1951), 401-410.

Lee, Irving J., "Procedure for 'Coercing' Agreement," *Harvard Business Review*, XXXII (1954), 39-45.

Levine, Jacob, and John Butler, "Lecture vs. Group Decision in Changing Behavior," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVI (1952), 29-33.

Lewin, Kurt, "The Dynamics of Group Action," *Educational Leadership*, I (January, 1944), 195-200.

——————, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics: Concept, Method, and Reality in Social Science: Social Equilibria and Social Change," *Human Relations*, I (1947), 5-41

——————, *Resolving Social Conflicts*, ed., Gertrude Weiss Lewin, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1948.

——————, Ronald Lippitt, and R. K. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates,'" *Journal of Social Psychology*, X (1939), 271-299.

Likert, Rensis, "Kurt Lewin: A Pioneer in Human Relations Research," *Human Relations*, I (June 1947), 131-135.

Lippitt, Ronald, "The Psychodrama in Leadership Training," *Sociometry*, VI (August, 1943), 291.

——————, and Ralph K. White, "An Experimental Study of Leadership and Group Life," *Readings in Social Psychology*, New York, Henry Holt, 1952, 340-355.

Maier, Norman R. F., "An Experimental Test of the Effect of Training on Discussion Leadership," *Human Relations*, VI (May, 1953), 161-174.

——————, "The Quality of Group Decisions as Influenced by the Discussion Leader," *Human Relations*, III (1959), 155-174.

Maier, Norman R. F., and Allen R. Solem, "Audience Role Playing: A New Method in Human Relations Training," *Human Relations*, IV (1951), 279-294.

——————, "The Contribution of a Discussion Leader to the Quality of Group Thinking: The Effective Use of Minority Opinions," *Human Relations*, V (August, 1952), 277-288.

Miller, Harry L., "Group Discussion—Specific or Panacea?" *Etc.: A Review of General Semantics*, XI (February, 1954), 49-58.

Moreno, J. L., "The Concept of Sociodrama; a New Approach to the Problem of Inter-Cultural Relations," *Sociometry*, VI (1943), 434-449.

——————, "A Note on Sociometry and Group Dynamics," *Sociometry*, XV (1952), 364-366.

Nylen, Donald, and Leland P. Bradford, "We Can Work Together," *National Education Association Journal*, XXXVII (October 1948), 436-438.

Phillips, J. Donald, "Report on Discussion 66," *Adult Education Journal*, VII (1948), 181-182.

Preston, M. G. and R. K. Heintz, "Effects of Participatory vs. Supervisory Leadership on Group Judgment," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLIV (1949), 345-355.

Ruesch, Jurgen, "Psychiatry and the Challenge of Communication," *Psychiatry*, XVII (February 1954), 1-18.

Robinson, Karl F., "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Group Discussion Upon the Social Attitudes of College Students," *Speech Monographs*, VIII (1941), 34-57.

Schacter, S., "Deviation, Rejection, and Communication," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVI (1951), 190-207.

——————, and Robert Hall, "Group-Derived Restraints and Audience Persuasion," *Human Relations*, V (November 1959), 397-406.

——————, N. Ellertson, Dorothy McBride, and Doris Gregory, "An Experimental Study of Cohesiveness and Productivity," *Human Relations*, IV (1951), 229-238.

Schonbar, Roselea Ann, "The Modification of Judgments in a Group Situation," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, XXXVII (1947), 69-80.

Shaw, M. E., "A Comparison of Individuals and Small Groups in the Rational Solution of Complex Problems," *Readings in Social Psychology*, New York, Henry Holt, 1952.

Smucker, Orden, "Measurement of Group Tension through the Use of Negative Sociometric Data," *Sociometry*, X (1947), 376-383.

Snyder, Ross, "A Theory of Group Dynamics," *Religious Education*, XLIV (1951), 39-43.

Steinzor, Bernard, "The Development and Evaluation of a Measure of Social Interaction," *Human Relations*, II (1949), 103-120.

——————, "The Intent Behind Behavior: A Study in Group Dynamics," *Educational Leadership*, V (February 1948), 301-306.

——————, "The Spatial Factor in Face-to-Face Discussion Groups," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLV (1950), 552-555.

Strauss, Bert, and Frances Strauss, *New Ways to Better Meanings*, New York, The Viking Press, 1951.

Stroop, J. R., "Is the Judgment of the Group Better than that of the Average Member of the Group?" *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, XV (1932), 550-562.

Taylor, Gordon Rattray, "Group Dynamics," *Science News*, XVI (1950), 93-106.

The Relative Effectiveness of a Lecture Method and Method of Group Discussion for Changing Food Habits, Bulletin III, Washington, D. C., National Research Council, 1953.

Thelen, Herbert, and Watson Dickerman, "Stereotypes and the Growth of Groups," *Educational Leadership*, VI (1949), 309-316.

——————, "Interaction Research Methodology," *Journal of Social Issues*, VI, 2 (1950), 56-76.

——————, "Techniques for Collecting Data on Interaction," *Journal of Social Issues*, VI, 2 (1950), 77-93.

Timmons, W. M., "Can the Product Superiority of Discussors be Attributed to Averaging or Majority Influences?" *Journal of Social Psychology*, XV (1942), 23-32.

Watson, G. B., "Do Groups Think More Efficiently than Individuals?" *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXIII (1928), 328-336.

Wheeler, David, and Howard Jordan, "Change of Individual Opinion to Accord with Group Opinion," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXIV (1929), 203-206.

Wilson, Carl, *An Experimental Study of Selected Correlates of Emergent Leadership during Problem-Solving Discussion*, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Penn State, 1953, pp. 488.

Yablonsky, Lewis, "A Sociometric Investigation into the Development of an Experimental Model for Small Group Analysis," *Sociometry*, XV (1952), 175-205.

Zander, Alvin F., "On the Symptoms and Survival of Senile Groups," *Educational Leadership*, V (February 1948), 319-322.

Zelko, Harold P., "Conference Management: Beware of the Gimmicks," *Advanced Management* XIX (December, 1954), 12-17.

My Toughest Speech Problem . . . *A Symposium*

A continuation of the practical symposium on real problems encountered by real speakers. . . .telling what has worked for them.

THE FIRST AWFUL MINUTE

My biggest problem was nervousness just before taking the platform. While waiting to be introduced, I underwent the most trying time of the whole speech. I was never bothered, to a great degree, by having to present the speech. After I was once on my feet and had the thing under way, I found actual pleasure in speaking. But those moments before. . . .!

I tried many things as a remedy for this torture. All of them failed. Then I hit on the idea of looking at a certain section of the audience and picking out one certain person — anyone would do — upon whom to conduct a detailed analysis as to what sort of a person this was, what problems he had to deal with, what he was thinking about at the moment, how he looked, how he dressed, and so on. I tried, also, to decide just why this particular individual had come to hear me talk.

Getting my mind thus focused outside of myself, I found that in addition to my nervousness disappearing I was now taking the first step toward reaching every individual in my audience with my speech, trying to make sure I got my ideas across, and helping to prevent disappointment when I was through. The plan is still working for me.

W. Cockrell

o o o o

LOWERING THE PITCH

When I was a college undergraduate, it was my ambition to become a member of the college debate team. I had succeeded in "making the squad" and had worked like a trojan to be chosen for the team's opening debate. Two weeks before the date of that debate, the coach called me aside and confidentially told me that he would like to pick me for the team but that due to my high pitched voice he couldn't. "The audience wouldn't listen to you for ten minutes," he said. "Get that voice down to where it should be and I'll be glad to put you on the team," he added.

What to do? How does one go about lowering vocal pitch? In those days before established speech correction procedures, the answer couldn't be found in speech literature. I had to devise my own method. So—

I sought out a music student friend of mine. "While I talk, you sit at that piano and try to identify the pitch of my voice," I said. It worked! The music student found the key without much trouble. "Now," I said, "give me a key two and a half tones lower than that." Fixing in mind the new key, I tried to speak at that level and found that I could.

For the next week I carried with me everywhere a mental image of that new pitch level, and whenever I opened my mouth I tried to speak in that key. Just as one can sing a song in different keys, I found one can speak in different keys, and by persistent attention and effort, and an occasional checking with the piano, it soon became easy for me to speak in the lower pitch.

P.S. I "made" the team.

J. H. H.

o o o o

A SPEECH COURSE HELPED!

Have you ever lacked confidence to stand on your feet and express your opinions before a group of people? If you have, you have experienced one of the worst forms of frustration.

I can distinctly remember sitting in committee meetings, listening to discussions on subjects upon which I had many thoughts but not having the confidence to express myself. I heard other people being complimented for the same opinions that I previously had.

Many times I came out of my senior officer's office, where I had gone to present a new idea, realizing that I had not only failed to put across my idea, but had also left a bad impression as to my ability.

Being active in church work I was frequently asked to give short talks in churh service. When I stood up to speak I was so nervous that I needed something to brace myself against. My tongue was thick, my voice broke, perspiration stood out on my face and I forgot every thought I might have had. I soon realized that I must improve my speaking or refuse any such assignment.

The Waterbury Chapter of A. I. B. offered a course in "Effective Speaking" under the instruction of Mrs. Mary Louise Von Tobel. I became one of her most difficult pupils. It was agony to stand up before the class and express my thoughts and it took all of my will power to attend the early classes. Due to the instructor's patience and continual practice I gradually began to gain confidence.

After the course was completed we formed the Waterbury Bankers Speakers Club also under the leadership of Mrs. Von Tobel. During the winter months for several years we met once a month for a dinner meeting. Each member of the club took his turn at acting as chairman of the meeting and called upon each of the members to give a short talk. This gave us all practice in speaking and confidence to express our ideas.

Since that time I have been called upon many times in my work to speak to groups of employees and conduct study courses as well. In recent years I have been requested to speak before both civic and church groups. I know I never will be an orator nor will I ever get over having butterflies when called upon to speak. However, I experience a genuine satisfaction to be able to stand up and say what I think and a great pleasure to look my audience in the eye and realize that I am holding their attention. This course in "Effective Speaking" has probably been of more benefit to me than any educational course I have ever taken.

C. R. G.
Vice-President
Waterbury, Conn., Savings Bank

o   o   o   o

FEWER WORDS — MORE IDEAS

My toughest speech problem lies in the realm of every-day conversation as well as in Public Speaking. So often, I find I am using too many words, and expressing too few ideas. Friends often ask me if I won't skip the details and get to the story.

From my Public Speaking class, I've learned the value of presenting ideas clearly and directly; and I've learned that a speaker must have his ideas well organized if he hopes to accomplish directness. Then the speaker is able to weigh the details concerned with his topic and present only those which are important.

Why couldn't I apply these same ideas to my normal conversation? I decided I could, and should. Practice at being well organized will not

only help to make me a better Public Speaker, but I hope it will reduce my tendency toward "wordiness' and thereby relax my conversational friends.

K. W. Roessing

o   o   o   o

KNOWING THE SUBJECT

My toughest speech problem came from a fear of being contradicted. The preparation of my first speech was filled with anxiety because I was afraid that some member of the audience might have more knowledge of the subject than I. I was afraid that I might make a mistake and someone would detect it. This fear prompted me to study and evaluate my material until I had learned far more than was necessary and until I was content in the knowledge that I fully understood all phases of my subject.

When the time came for me to deliver my speech, to realize that I thoroughly knew my material gave me a feeling of ease and enabled me to get through my speech in a better manner than might otherwise have been possible.

Eugene Wills

o   o   o   o

SHIFT OF ATTENTION

The toughest speech problem I have ever had was my first case of stage-fright. I had no idea of how to combat this common malady, and the outcome of my presentation that day would mean a big feather in my cap if I made good.

I was demonstrating the vacuum cleaner I sold at that time to the assembled group of sales personnel of our branch. The manager had told me that my manner of presentation would be adopted if a majority of the salesmen thought it was satisfactory.

Right before my presentation, I tensed up. When the time finally did come for me to start, I was shaking like a leaf. One of the older salesmen saw my plight and must have decided to sympathize with me, for he distracted the attention of the whole room by shouting at the top of his voice—"Look at that!" and pointing out the window. Naturally, all of us looked. . .at an empty street.

The momentary shift of attention had the desired result. My attention was diverted for just long enough to relieve my inner tension,and although I had a harder than normal job of gaining the attention of the audience at the beginning of my demonstration, I was better equipped to do so than I had been only seconds before. Almost

two-thirds of the salesmen thought that the new method was worth a try.

Wray Williamson

● ● ● ●

FINDING A SUITABLE SUBJECT

My toughest speech problem was to find a subject for my first persuasive speech which would be really interesting. Immediately after our instructor informed the class of the oncoming speech, I started thinking about a subject. The more I tried to think of a subject, the more confused I became. I knew what method I wanted to use but I wasn't able to find a subject to fit the method. After about a week of this, I was ready to give up in disgust.

One night my roommates and I were holding a typical "gab session" when one of them, a former Morgantown High School student, made an erroneous statement about University High School. I had recently made observations at University High School and had a well-rounded knowledge about the high school plant. I immediately corrected him and as the evening wore on, a heated discussion grew out of my statement. Finally the other fellows said they would have to stop but we would resume the argument the next night. I agreed and said that I could "talk for hours" about this subject. I realized what I had said as soon as the words left my mouth. If I could talk for hours about University High School, then why couldn't I talk about it for six minutes? At last I had found my subject. I had concentrated so hard in trying to find a subject that I was unable to see one which was right before my eyes.

Two days later, I gave my speech on University High School. Much to my happy surprise, I made my first "A" on the speech which gave me the most trouble!

A Student

● ● ● ●

ELIMINATING SLANG

My most difficult speech problem occurred while I was an instructor in the Air Force. I was not alone, however, in my plight. The problem was a common one among most of the instructors at the school. It developed as a result of the instructional procedure in use — the same information being taught day after day until it became mechanical. Each instructor became so accustomed to teaching the information that he tended to limit his transitions to "all right" or "O.K." This soon became a difficult habit to break.

Two of us, however, decided to break ourselves of the monotony. Since two instructors were assigned to each class (one teaching while the other was listening) we decided that the one doing the listening each time would count and record the number of times the other one used either of the two expressions during his lecture. The first record was astonishing! But as time went on and the procedure was continued, the score kept going down and down until we even became aware ourselves when we used either expression. We both finally succeeded in ridding ourselves completely of this monotony of expression through the simple expedient of counting.

Stephen S. Maxey
Morgantown, W. Va.

● ● ● ●

COMBATTING FEAR

I find my toughest speech problem to be that of having the fear to talk before a large audience. I no sooner begin to talk than before you know it my voice begins to tremble. Either it is because I am not thoroughly relaxed or else in very many cases not prepared to talk. Another bad habit is speaking very fast as if I were out to catch an express train. All these factors have to a great extent hindered my improvement in speech.

But now I am beginning to overcome my faultiness. To begin with I am trying to speak more at fraternity meetings, group gatherings, and public affairs in the community. At home I stand before the mirror and speak to myself, watching not only the way I am speaking but trying to control my voice at the same time. Next, but not least, I talk to myself, saying, "What reason have I to be afraid?"; "If others have done it, I'm no different and therefore I shouldn't be scared."

Another way I combat my fears is by slowing down on my talking; both stopping to hear what I have said, and how my audience reacts. By taking public speaking in college, I have been helped a great deal. Learning the correct rules and ways of speech and receiving a chance to talk with my classmates in topic discussion, I am beginning to attend more affairs where speeches are given by others so that I might acquire some new ways to make my speech more interesting to the audience which is listening to me. There is constant need for improvement in speech for "Speech is Civilization—Silence Isolates."

Don Rosenthal
Utica, New York

Are We Really Teaching Them To Communicate?

By J. CALVIN CALLAGHAN

THIS WORD *communicate* is a sort of hucksterish word nowadays ... It's a popular word. Its denotation undoubtedly covers a multitude of sins. But its connotations are all most positive and pleasant. A lot of folks who wouldn't be caught dead in a speech course, for example—and dead is probably what they'd be—sign up for communication with gusto and glee. Our human tendency to magnify the importance of the symbol, *per se,* has never ceased to amaze me. What we name it is almost all-important. And so we pass from fad to fad in our labels for things. And the current label, the one against which we have not yet begun to rebel, is communication.

Every once in a while somebody says to me, "Callaghan, what do you teach?" If I'm in a puckish mood, I sometimes reply, "People"—since after all that is the most truthful answer to the question I can conceive. After an appropriate interval of silence, perhaps three seconds, I get my questioner off the hook. I say, "If you want to know what the people I teach *learn,* it's ..." Then I hestitate. Shall I say speech, or public speaking, or that dirty Aristotelian word *rhetoric*— and be met with icy termination of the conversation? I notice that if l say I teach people how meaningfully to communicate ideas to other people, then the conversation continues.

I'm using the word *communication* to designate four processes, which are actually two, or which in the final analysis is a single process. The communication of ideas may occur through two media: the written word, and the spoken word. Men write, and others read: when those who read read accurately what was written, communication occurs. Men also speak, and others listen. And when the listener understands accurately what actually was in the speaker's mind, communication occurs.

The speech medium of speaker-listener communication occurs in one or both of two ways. The speaker has a vocal instrument. Sounds are produced; and by means of a culturally accepted code they become intelligible symbols, which

we call words, the meaning of which are more or less—mostly less— agreed upon by given groups. As the speaker has the capacity to produce the word, so the listener has a natural capacity to hear and interpret that word: he has ears, and pathways to the associative areas of the brain, and experience to apply.

But speech communication occurs also through sight as well as through sound. For the speaker has an entire body, all of it communicating. And his listener has eyes to perceive. As a matter of fact, the listener trusts his eyes more surely than he trusts his ears. For if what he sees in the total posture of the speaker contradicts what he hears, the real truth is still conveyed. The speaker who says, "I am pleased to meet you," but belies the amenity with his eyes, his face, his arms, his legs, that speaker has communicated his true meaning— that he's bored stiff—and his listener knows it.

So I speak of communication in this sense: of the meeting of minds through the cooperation of voice and ears and body and eyes, through the word and through gesture—in the generic sense of the word *gesture.* I almost hesitate to use it, because when a speech teacher speaks the word *gesture* he runs the calculated risk of his listeners' assuming he's referring to the graceful waving of arms in the air, the pointed index finger and the clinched fist. A lot of intelligent and otherwise well informed folks still believe that this is what is taught in public speaking classes—and are often astonished when I report that every semester I teach an entire three-credit course in public speaking, on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday every week, without ever *mentioning* a gesture.

By gesture, of course, I mean the communication of meaning without the word: I mean speech. For example, in class one morning last week I asked a student to ask me how many cups of coffee I had had for breakfast. Dutifully he asked me; and I held up two fingers. Proving—in a pretty easily elementary fashion, I must admit, but conclusively—that an idea had been communicated, through a kind of speech, and with com-

plete accuracy too. People must learn that what they are and what they do and how they look, all communicate ideas as surely as do their well chosen words. Else they will be found out: they will be either misunderstood, or understood only too well for their own comfort and conscience.

I limit myself to the spoken word and the spoken gesture, not because the written word is unimportant. Far from it. That every American citizen be able to write and read is tremendously important. I speak of speaking and listening, not because they are more important than writing and reading, but because they are *equally* important, to personal effectiveness and to the progress of American society as a whole. I do not commit the error of drawing an unwarranted inference from a survey by the Columbia Broadcasting System of the communicative habits of human beings. The survey disclosed that of a man's working hours he spends 9% of them communicating by writing, 16% in reading, 30% in speaking, and 45% in listening. . . . I would not infer from this that speaking and listening are to writing and reading as 75 is to 25, or as 3 is to 1. All four are important, equally important. What I do say is this: to neglect the two communicative skills which comprise 75% of man's communicative needs is criminal. This is a crime against the person; and it is a crime against the society in which that person lives and moves. It renders both him, and the society to which he is expected to contribute, less effectual than both ought to be.

May I divide the question which is my title into its two components? First, let's leave out the word *really*. Are we teaching them to communicate at all? The answer is yes—in some places, to some degree. There are universities and colleges and high schools and private schools and junior high schools and elementary schools—and homes—where young men and young women are being trained to speak and to listen. But I am ashamed to report that in vast areas of the geographical region in which you and I live no such training is going on.

A few years ago I went into a Central New York industry to give a course in effective oral communication. One name on the roster was vaguely familiar. At the end of the first class I said to this man, "Didn't you go to . . . "—and I named a university at which I had taught before the War. "Yes." "Wern't you on the football team?" "Yes." "Captain in your senior year?" "Yes." "Ever take a course in public speaking there?" "No"—with a smile—"my chemistry curriculum wouldn't permit

it." Here was a chemist, now risen to the post of superintendent in that large industry; and he needed speech; and his company was paying now to get for him the training his university ought to have given him long ago. Why couldn't he, or his adviser, have been farsighted enough to perceive this need—need for a speech course, which in his case would have been, in a very real sense, a chemistry course?

Four years ago a young man I knew applied, in an interview, for admission to one of the best law schools in the East. The interviewer learned that he was a speech major—and immediately became interested in him. "Oh yes," he said, "we took a speech major into our School for the first time last year, and he turned out to be the best student in our freshman class." Now I don't say that boy was the best student because he had majored in speech, because he had been taught that a speaker must have knowledge and must know how so to structure his presentation of that knowledge that his particular listeners will comprehend it. I do say that he was better than many other students because they, with equal brilliance perhaps, had never been given expert supervision in communicating what they did know. In modern society is man defensible unless he not only knows something worth knowing, but is willing and able to share it comprehensibly with others? 1955 is not the year of the independent researcher or the isolated citizen.

There are pre-medical students every year who are refused admission to colleges of medicine because in their preliminary interviews they cannot communicate ideas. And justifiably refused: for does a physician really heal until his communication is understood by his listening patients, or a listening nurse? Does healing occur through knowledge solely, or through knowledge plus communication? Knowledge is not power—until it is successfully communicated.

Why do so many congregations complain that ministers cannot preach a really effective sermon? And when are pre-ministerial students going to discover that you can't learn to preach in a seminary to other prospective ministers, that their audiences are going to be heterogeneous laymen, and that if they want realistic experience in communication they'd better get it in their undergraduate college?

Or before. For the real crime lies not in college kids who graduate with Bachelor of Arts degrees or Bachelor of Science degrees without prepara-

tion in the art-science of communicating ideas. Most of our populace never gets to college. What of our high schools? Here we find the saddest state of affairs.

A young girl, prepared to teach speech, graduated last year from a university. She was offered a speech job, all right. But, as it happens, she was getting married; and she wanted to live with her husband; hence she wanted a job in a particular locality. But the school system in that locality had no program of teaching spoken communication. She was qualified to teach another subject; she's now teaching it. The tragedy is not that this particular girl isn't doing what she could splendidly do. The tragedy lies in what all the children in that large system are missing, what they'll never get—or will get slowly, inefficiently, perhaps even inappropriately, in the high school of hard knocks.

Last year I had in my beginning public speaking class a youg girl, whose curriculum required her to take this course. She was having trouble with it. One weekend her mother was in Syracuse visiting her, and on Friday she attended our class. The girl spoke that day, neither wisely nor too well. The mother stopped to chat with me after class. She was annoyed—in fact it would be accurate to say that she was indignant—that her daughter had not been adequately prepared for this facet of her college study. That mother told me that she was going to go back to her home city and raise some not too quiet hell, with the local principal and with the local school board.

I don't want to sound like an alarmist, or like prophetic handwriting on a wall. But all earnestness I say this: if high school principals and superintendents of schools were really smart, they'd get out in front on this, instead of indolently bowing to cultural lag. Public schools are under attacks from many quarters, most of them unfair. But there will shortly, surely, come an attack—from parents, from industry and business, from all sorts of people in all walks of life—saying: why are you failing to train our children in this fundamental skill? And make no mistake about the fury of this attack when it finally comes. I hate to contemplate what will happen when a man like Flesch gets this issue by the tail and writes a book about it. The current controversy over reading will be tame, contrasted with the approaching one on orally communicating ideas.

May we return to our title and reinsert that word *really?* Even where we are training them to

communicate, are we *really* doing so? Not nearly so effectively as we ought to, in my judgment.

Even where we are training them to communicate, who are *them?* Too often they're our best, selected, gifted students. Sure, they profit from the training: don't cancel it out for them, ever. But on a relative basis, in many schools we're training those who relatively need the training least, and sadly neglecting those who need it most.

I was talking with a student in my office this year. He's a freshman in engineering. He told me of the speech course he had had in his high school—and it was a good one. Wonderful, I thought. But who took it? The fifteen best students in junior English were selected to take speech in their senior year. I asked him how many seniors there were in his graduating class. The number was over a hundred. 15%! The top 15%! The ones who would go on to College in all likelihood, and at least could get the needed experience there. What of the other 85%, for many of whom high school education is terminal? Is this a crime—against them, against humanity?

Or look at the speech contests which so many high schools participate in. You say: well, we have no speech instruction, of course, but we give them that experience extracurricularly. Disregarding the obvious objection that preparation of a single speech for a contest will never adequately teach a young man or young woman to conceive, structure, organize, and deliver clearly, intelligently, the varied types of communications required by life in our modern world—even disregarding that, again the embarrassing question: who are *them?* The best, of course. What does a contest do? It's a survival of the fittest, a progressive—I'm afraid that may be a badly chosen word—a progressive elimination of the weakest. Some day someone is going to muster the courage to set up a speech contest where the *loser* goes on, where after each round the *poorest* speakers, the ones who need it most, go on into the next round to acquire the additional experience which they, above all, need.

And even in such contests, where we theoretically train the gifted, do we really train them to *communicate?* Take the most popular one. What does it train its contestants to do? To write a stilted manuscript and then memorize it. Now memorization is the most inefficient of all methods of preparing a speech. It requires an enormous expenditure of time, if it is to be done well. There

are differences in written and spoken style. Unless the manuscript is most carefully composed, it will smell of the lamp; it won't sound like a speech when it comes out. Except in the hands of the exceptionally able, it communicates mere words, symbols, never the ideas for which these symbols stand. For the speaker is concentrating on remembering the words he has written and committed to memory, not the ideas in his currently conscious mind. It doesn't become genuine communication: it becomes machinelike rather than human, art for the sake of art—and the art is not the art of communication.

Altogether too often, the prize goes to the most grandiloquent rather than to the fair—to the speech most closely resembling that of 1890 instead of 1955. Inflection of voice and grace of gesture weigh more heavily than the import or structuring of the idea. As a matter of fact, my observation over a decade of judging such contests is that they're pretty barren of original, constructive ideas. There is frenzied tribute to the constitution, in generalities which glitter so dazzlingly that the *speech* is never heard. There is pointing to high heaven and pointing to the flag.

Once I heard a girl deliver an intelligent speech in this contest. What she did was very simple. She took three specific freedoms guaranteed by our constitution to every American citizen, and cited examples of each of them in her own humble daily life, in home and church and school. When *she* pointed to the flag, it became a meaningful, concrete symbol of freedom. Some one had taught that girl that a speech has to be specific, related to real life, structured by division into a very few main ideas, each supported and developed. Somewhere she had learned that speech is not random gushing aloud, but is fabricated to some desired intellectual end, an idea which the speaker wants his listeners to understand or appreciate or agree with.

What is a contest for? Education for life situations, or nothing at all. If it teaches a student to employ a speech method and a speech style that he will use only in that contest and never again, then let's throw the whole thing out. It's educationally indefensible, and we ought to be ashamed to be associated with it. I know one high school principal in this county who has done precisely that; he refuses to participate in the contest—and I admire the intelligence and the simple courage of his decision. Fortunately, we don't have to throw contests out. We can so manage them that

they will desirably supplement classroom instruction in communication, and train young folks realistically for the kind of speaking they will have to do in modern life. But to make such a change, to counteract this existing cultural lag, we'll have to *really* teach them to communicate.

My final proof: and I'm sorry I must develop it so briefly—it merits more emphasis. Go back to those percentages I cited a while ago: 9 and 16 and 30 and 45. Almost half of our communicative time is spent in listening. In some places we're teaching speaking . . . But where and when are we training them to listen? Never? Well, hardly ever.

Are we teaching them to communicate? Are we *really* teaching them to communicate? Are we enabling our youth to learn to speak and to listen, effectively? In my judgment, not enough—and not well enough. If this is a free country, and it is, one of the freedoms we ought to insist upon is the freedom to tell our neighbors and our friends, and particularly our educators, that something has got to be done about this problem—and right soon.

We have many excellent remedial-reading clinics, and we're getting more of them. But until this very instant have you ever even heard the two words I'm about to utter: remedial-listening? Yet one of the things of which we're absolutely certain is that ineffective listening, every hour of every day, ruins speech communications. Ideas get misunderstood and misinterpreted, not because they weren't clearly explained, but because they weren't clearly listened to.

There may come a day when we have a course labeled Listening 1a and 1b. Though I hope not. Because actually, every instant we teach speaking we can at that same instant teach listening. All we need to find out is how. Some experimentation is going on. We're beginning to find out some things about the listening process, and when and how it goes haywire. But we need a lot of research, and we need subsidies for it, even though it isn't glamorous and may not advertise glamorous results. Above all, we need a lot of fooling around with applications in teaching to the results of fundamental research in listening. If we could train more effective listeners, we wouldn't have to worry quite so much about training effective speakers, since the listener's contribution to every communication is enormous. Even the most inept speaker can succeed if each of his listeners will, to employ the words of the textbook in our basic public speaking course here at Syracuse, "compensate for the speaker's inadequacies."